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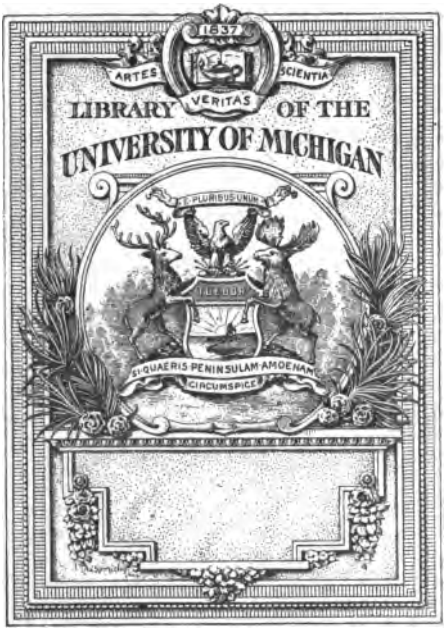
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MICROBIOLOGY

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MICROBIOLOGY

FOR

Agricultural and Domestic Science Students

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WITH 128 ILLUSTRATIONS

PHILADELPHIA

P. BLAKISTON'S SON & CO.

1012 WALNUT STREET

1911

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Printed by
The Maple Press
York, Pa.

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Dr. L. F. Rettger of Yale University kindly furnished a brief review of "Bacillary White Diarrhœa of Chicks."

INTRODUCTION.

By a process of adaptation and growth, the branch of science commonly recognized as "*Bacteriology*" has for many years included, besides the bacterial forms, those microörganisms yielding to the same laboratory methods of study and investigation. This is a policy or purpose instituted by Pasteur. It is also the result of investigations and added knowledge, more definite arrangements of available facts, and the highly specialized training required for the work. In short, technic together with the economic relations of the subject-matter has no little influence in placing limitations. In the light of such circumstances, it appears more pertinent to designate this text-book as "*Microbiology*," perhaps not the best term, but one much in accord with French usage.

Agriculture and Domestic Science call for the treatment of the subject in such a manner as to make it basic to the interpretation of such subjects as air impurities, water supplies, sewage disposal, soils, dairying, fermentation industries, food preservation and decomposition, manufacture of biological products, transmission of disease, susceptibility and immunity, sanitation, and control of infectious or contagious diseases. A strong effort has been made to provide the fundamental and guiding principles of the subject and to show just how these principles fit into the subjects of a more or less strictly professional or practical nature. Here the instructional work of the microbiologist stops in most educational institutions and the instruction of the practical or professional man begins.

Because of the extreme massiveness and diversity of the subjects, Agriculture and Domestic Science, a comprehensive consideration of the subject is demanded. Elimination of many features not only becomes difficult but really precarious, because so many avenues are open to the student that pertinency cannot always be foreseen or determined. It is well to remember, too, that Agriculture and Domestic Science, unlike such aggregate subjects as Engineering and Medicine, because of their youth, have not developed to that stage in their educational history where

practice and the science upon which practice should be founded are amalgamated. The practical man in Agriculture too frequently is so extremely traditional in his practice that he utterly fails to separate the true from the false, or, in other words, does not exercise his discriminative powers at all, but depends entirely upon so-called haphazard methods and self-willed processes. This factor in agricultural education operates against the proper development and logical study of any branch of science in its relation to the farmer.

The plan of a text-book in Microbiology which seeks to furnish basic principles, to train the mind in logical development and adjustment, and to prepare the student to undertake an intelligent study of strictly professional or practical subjects, must assume a definite and systematic arrangement. With this in mind, the text has been divided into three distinct parts: *Morpholog'cal and Cultural*, or that which deals with forms and methods of handling; *Physiological*, or that which deals strictly with functions, the key to the applied; *Applied*, or that which reaches into the application of the facts developed to the problems met in the study of professional or practical affairs of Agriculture or Domestic Science.

In presenting this text-book, *the product of several hands*, there is the most serious difficulty in obtaining unity of thought and expression without repetition; besides, that very conspicuous weakness of emphasizing some features unduly while other features of importance are scarcely mentioned, confronts us. A most earnest attempt has been made to overcome these faults as far as possible, but a complete mastery of them cannot be expected in the first product. However, what is lacked in unity and continuity of expression and in balance, we sincerely hope will be made up, in part at least, by the selection and the value of the material contributed.

Laboratory features of microbiology have been eliminated wherever it has been practicable. Should any demonstrations be added or needed, we have felt that they may be easily supplied by the instructor, who, of course, will be governed by local facilities and conditions. Although no space has been given to laboratory exercises, it should not be gathered that the authors of this book are any the less earnest in urging a well-organized laboratory course to supplement the general instruction as an essential factor to a working appreciation of the subject.

In matters of spelling, new words, and phrases, conservatism has controlled. Arbitrary decisions and selections have been forced in

several instances to secure clearness, consistency and definiteness. It is painfully evident to anyone attempting to bring system out of the confusion and chaos existing in many fields of microbiological action that some rearrangement ought to be undertaken. As usual, however, this will be very slow on account of the many almost insurmountable difficulties.

We need and invite helpful suggestions and criticisms at all times, for a valuable text-book of the nature of this is one of slow growth and development and not of "sport evolution." The editor is certain that each contributor will welcome suggestions and, further, will be in far better position to judge his own contribution after the material appears in book form and has been submitted to students for which it is designed.

No one better than the editor realizes fully the sympathetic part played by the contributors. If any merit attaches to this book as it finds its place in microbiological instruction, *such merit* should be recognized as due the contributors whose unselfish aims have made it possible.

CHARLES E. MARSHALL, EDITOR.

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HISTORY OF MICROBIOLOGY*

Geronimo Fracastorio, of Verona, was born in 1484, studied medicine in Padua, and published a work in Venice in 1546, which contained the first statement of the true nature of contagion, infection, or disease organisms, and of the modes of transmission of infectious disease. He divided diseases into those which infect by immediate contact, through intermediate agents, and at a distance through the air. Organisms which cause disease, called *Seminaria contagionum*, he supposed to be of the nature of viscous or glutinous matter, similar to the colloidal states of substances described by modern physical chemists. These particles, too small to be seen, were capable of reproduction in appropriate media, and became pathogenic through the action of animal heat. Thus Fracastorius, in the middle of the sixteenth century, gave us an outline of morbid processes in terms of microbiology.

Athanasius Kircher, in 1659, demonstrated the presence of "minute living worms in putrid meat, milk, vinegar, etc."; but he did not describe their form and character, and it is doubtful if he ever saw microörganisms.

In the year 1683 Antonius van Leeuwenhoek, a Dutch naturalist and a maker of lenses, communicated to the English Royal Society the results of observations which he had made with a simple microscope of his own construction, magnifying from 100 to 150 times. He found in water, saliva, dental tartar, etc., what he termed "animalcula." He described what he saw, and by his drawings showed both rod-like and spiral forms, both of which, he said, had motility. In all probability, the two species he saw were those now recognized as *Bacillus buccalis maximus* and *Spirillum sputigenum*. Leeuwenhoek's observations were purely objective and in striking contrast with the speculative views of M. A. Plenciz, a Viennese physician, who in 1762 published a germ theory of infectious diseases. Plenciz maintained that there was a special organism by which each infectious disease was produced, that microörganisms were capable of reproduction outside of the body, and that they might be conveyed from place to place by the air.

* Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

The important rôle that the compound microscope has played in microbiology calls for something regarding the invention of this instrument —an invention which antedates Leeuwenhoek's discovery by nearly 100 years.

The first compound microscope was made by Hans Jansen and his son Zaccharias, in 1590, at Middelburg, in Holland. The instrument was composed of two lenses mounted in tubes of iron; a representation of it, made from the original and still kept at Middelburg, is shown in Fig. 1. From that date the microscope gradually improved. In 1844 the immersion lens was introduced by Dolland. In 1870 Abbé brought out the substage condenser, which still bears his name. Apo-

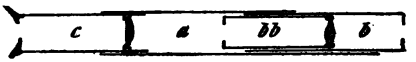


FIG. 1.—Longitudinal section of a compound microscope made by Zacharias Jansen (1590). *a*, microscope tube; *b*, objective tube; *c*, ocular.

chromatic lenses and many minor improvements were introduced by the firm of Zeiss about 1880.

In 1786 O. F. Müller (a Dane) first attempted to classify, according to the Linnean system, the various organisms previously discovered, and characterized four or five genera—among them, the genus *Vibrio*, in which, under the terms *bacillus*, *lineola*, and *spirillum*, we recognize forms that correspond with our "*bacteria*."

From the middle of the eighteenth century until well on into the nineteenth, the history of bacteriology is largely the story of a controversy between those who believed that minute living organisms, such as those above referred to, were produced from inanimate substances, and that their formation was *spontaneous*. Philosophers, poets, and common people of the most enlightened nations accepted this doctrine down to the eighteenth century. The hypothesis regarding formation was known as that of "spontaneous generation," "heterogenesis," and "abiogenesis." The opponents of this theory denied the possibility of a transition from a lifeless to a living condition, and contended that all life came from pre-existing life—a theory aphoristically summed up in the phrase "*omne vivum ex vivo*." Such was the doctrine of Biogenesis,—life only from life.

In 1668, Francisco Redi, an Italian, distinguished alike as scholar,

poet, physician, and naturalist, expressed the idea that life in matter is always produced through the agency of pre-existing living matter; but the beginnings of the real controversy date from the publication of Needham's experiments in 1745. The English divine boiled some meat extract in a flask, made the flask air-tight, and left it for some days. When the flask was opened, he found in it what he termed "infusoria." He naturally concluded that all life had been killed by boiling; and, as the entrance of fresh life from the outside was prevented by the closing of the flask, he considered that the living infusoria must have originated spontaneously from the inanimate constituents of the broth.

Twenty years later Abbé Spallanzani alleged that the development of the infusoria "in an infusion maintained at boiling-point for three-quarters of an hour was possible only, provided air, which had not been previously exposed to the influence of fire, had been admitted." Objections were made to these experiments and the controversy went merrily on. Gradually experimental evidence accumulated—resulting largely from the work of Franz Schulze, and the discovery by Schroeder and Dusch in 1853, that putrescible fluids will not decay after boiling, if protected from the bacteria of the air by means of a cotton-wool filter or plug; and the epoch-making experiments of Pasteur in 1860, with the now well-known Pasteur flask, showed conclusively that the hypothesis of spontaneous generation, or abiogenesis, could not be proved.

Liebig, the celebrated German chemist, strenuously opposed the theories of Pasteur; his authority and the brilliancy of his expositions influenced the scientific world during the period 1840–1860. To Liebig, fermentation was a purely chemical phenomenon unassociated with any vital process; and he treated Pasteur's results with disdain. "Those who pretend to explain the putrefaction of animal substance by the presence of microörganisms," he wrote, "reason very much like a child who would explain the rapidity of the Rhine by attributing it to the violent motions imparted to it in the direction of Bingen by the numerous wheels of the mills of Mayence." Again and again Liebig formally denied the correctness of Pasteur's assertions; finally Pasteur challenged him to appear before the Academic Commission to which they would submit their respective results. Liebig, however, did not accept the challenge; the victory was with the French savant.

In 1841 Fuchs investigated some blue and yellow milk. He examined it with the microscope and discovered the presence of organisms.

He succeeded in cultivating the "blue milk" microbe in mallow slime, and re-developed the blue color in milk by introducing some of his culture. The organisms obtained were sent to Ehrenberg, who named them *Bacterium syncyaneum*, now known as *B. cyanogenus*, *Ps. syncyanea* and *B. synxanthum*, a name which is still retained in the literature.

Since 1860 the master mind of Louis Pasteur has dominated the realm of microbiology. His epoch-making discoveries were largely due to his intuitive vision, his skill in device and in the adaptation of means to ends, his prodigious industry, and the enthusiasm and love with which he inspired his associates. Trained as a chemist, his first appointment was to a professorship of chemistry, and his earliest research dealt with problems in molecular chemistry and physics. On his being elected Dean of the Faculty of Sciences at Lille, he commenced to study fermentation. His work in this field was soon followed by important results: the discovery of the organisms which produce lactic and butyric fermentation, and of anaerobic life, or life which flourishes without free oxygen. He devised an improved method of making vinegar, and demonstrated the presence of the *acetic* organism which he named *Mycoderma aceti*. Later he studied the diseases of wine, and discovered that bitterness or greasiness was due to a special ferment, and suggested the heating of wines in closed bottles to a temperature of 60°, in order to kill the injurious microörganisms. This process, since called pasteurization, is now largely used, and makes it possible for manufactures and merchants to keep and export wine without losing its flavor or bouquet. It is interesting in this connection to note that a French confectioner named Appert published, in 1811, his method of preserving fruits, vegetables, and liquors by heating and sealing, and hence may be looked upon as the founder of the packing and canning industry.

In 1864–65 the silk districts of that region of France, known as the Midi, suffered such serious losses that the yield of cocoons fell from twenty-six million kilogrammes to four million, which entailed a loss of twenty million dollars and caused widespread distress and poverty. An epidemic had broken out among the silk-worms,—the dread disease known as Pébrine. Pasteur was induced to make an investigation as to the best means of combating the epidemic; and, after several years of study, he found the organism causing the disease, suggested remedies, and brought back wealth to the ruined communities, but at the cost to himself of impaired health and partial paralysis.

Pasteur's results were very suggestive; and one outcome of his work was that between 1870 and 1880 several important discoveries were made by other investigators. Prior to the dates mentioned, the mortality from blood poisoning, gangrene, and other infections following operations was extremely high. Surgeons regarded such a result as inevitable, and many agreed with the saying of Velpeau, that "the prick of a pin is the open door to death;" but, in 1860, Joseph Lister, an Edinburgh surgeon, began to study the possible rôle of microbes in the infection of wounds. By sterilizing his instruments, sponges, ligatures, etc., and using antiseptics, he was able to obtain such a high percentage of recoveries that in two years he saved thirty-four patients out of forty,—a percentage unheard of up to that time. Hence the origin of the antiseptic and aseptic methods of surgery. Lister's methods, suggested by the ideas of Pasteur, have rendered possible the marvelous surgery of the present day, banished hospital gangrene, and robbed confinement of its terrors.

To Lister must also be given the honor of devising the first practical way of obtaining a pure culture of bacteria by means of high dilutions. By using this method, Lister obtained some idea of the different fermentations of milk, such as souring, curdling, etc. He also confirmed the conclusion of Robert Hall (1874), that milk could be obtained from the animal in a sterile condition, thus proving that the souring of milk was caused by organisms from some external source.

In 1872, F. Cohn's System of Classification, based on morphological characters, appeared. He distinguished six genera,—micrococcus, bacterium, bacillus, vibrio, spirillum, and spirochæte; four years later this investigator made the important discovery of endospores (spores formed within cells), and noticed that organisms in this state were more resistant to heat than the rods from which they were derived. This fact was observed in the well-known *"hay bacillus."*

In 1871, Weigert succeeded in staining bacteria with picro-carmine; but it was not until 1876 that he used the aniline colors, or dyes, for this purpose, and thus opened up a new field which was exploited with such beautiful results by Ehrlich, Koch, Gram, and others. The staining of microörganisms rendered it possible to obtain pictures of them by photographic methods; the art of photomicrography developed thus rapidly.

In 1879, Miquel discovered bacteria which grew or developed at temperatures between 65° and 75°. He isolated them first from the waters

of the Seine, and subsequently from dust, manure, and other substances. Later researches have shown that these thermophilic organisms play important rôles in various fermentations.

The ninth decade of the last century was prolific in important bacteriological events. Discovery followed discovery in rapid succession. In 1880, Laveran, a French military surgeon, discovered the protozoön of malaria; in 1881 Robert Koch introduced the poured gelatin and agar plate, which made it possible to obtain pure cultures without difficulty. Investigators were quick to take advantage of this method; and notable results followed. Eberth and Gaffky discovered the bacillus of typhoid fever, and succeeded in growing it in culture media. In 1882, Loeffler and Schütz discovered the bacterium which causes glanders; and in the following year Koch isolated the vibrio of Asiatic cholera from the intestines of cholera patients. In 1883 Klebs described the diphtheria bacterium; and, in 1884, Loeffler grew the organism in pure culture.

In 1884, Koch published his results on the etiology of tuberculosis, in a paper which will remain as a classical master-piece of bacteriological research, owing to the difficulty of the task and the thoroughness of the work. Not only did Koch show the tubercle bacterium by appropriate staining methods, but he succeeded in obtaining pure cultures of it and in producing tuberculosis by inoculation with his isolated cultures.

In 1885, Nicolaier observed the tetanus bacillus in pus produced by inoculating mice and rabbits with soil; later, in 1889, Kitasato isolated this organism, and showed that the cause of the failure in earlier attempts to isolate it were due to the fact that it could grow only in the absence of free oxygen. The specific infecting agents in pneumonia were discovered by Friedlander and Fraenkel about this time, as were also several organisms associated with inflammation and suppuration, such as the *Streptococcus pyogenes* and the *Staphylococcus pyogenes*, discovered by Rosenbach, and the green pus germ (*Ps. pyocyanea*) by Gessard.

Whilst these discoveries were taking place, largely in Germany, Pasteur had been engrossed with his prophylactic studies. In 1880, he discovered a method of vaccination against fowl cholera; and in 1881 he published his method of vaccination against anthrax. On a farm at Pouilly le Fort, sixty sheep were placed at Pasteur's disposal; ten of these received no treatment, and twenty-five were vaccinated. Some days afterward the latter were inoculated with virulent anthrax, and also twenty-five which had received no vaccine. The twenty-five non-vacci-

nated sheep died; and the twenty-five vaccinated ones remained healthy and in the same state as the ten control animals. This convincing experiment was followed by others; and, in the twenty-five years immediately following the introduction of the method, more than ten million animals were vaccinated in France alone, with excellent results. In 1885, as the result of much animal experimentation, Pasteur related to the Academy of Sciences his discovery of a method of vaccination against rabies, or hydrophobia; and six months after the successful treatment of the first case, 350 persons bitten by rabid dogs were vaccinated. An institute for the preparation of vaccines was built by public subscription and named the Pasteur Institute; and since that date more than thirty similar establishments have been founded in different parts of the world.

This eighth decade, so pregnant with discoveries of the utmost importance to medicine and surgery, was also notable for its discoveries in agricultural bacteriology. The honor of having been the first to work out the causal relation between a specific microbe and a plant disease belongs to Burrill, who discovered the organism of Fire or Pear Blight; and in 1883 to 1888 Wakker discovered the bacillus which produces the "yellows" of the hyacinth, a disease of considerable economic importance in Holland. To Beyerinck, Hellriegel, and Wilfarth we owe our earlier knowledge of the development and morphology of the nitrogen-fixing organism which produces the nodules or tubercles on the roots of legumes. In 1888 Winogradsky isolated from soils nitrifying microbes which grew in a medium devoid of all traces of organic matter. During this period, Hansen's investigations along the line of the fermentation industry were most important. He devised methods for securing pure cultures of yeasts starting from a *single cell*, showed that yeasts produced diseases in beer, and established the method of identifying yeasts by observing their microscopic appearance, the formation of ascospores, and the production of films.

The tenth decade of the nineteenth century was almost as prolific in discovery as the ninth. In 1890 Behring discovered the antitoxin for diphtheria, as a result of the pioneer work on toxins by Roux and Yersin. Five years later, this serum came into general use as a curative; and the efficiency of the treatment is shown by a comparison of the death rate from diphtheria before and after the introduction of the antitoxin. The average annual death rate from diphtheria in eight large cities, during the period 1885–1894, was 9.74 per 10,000 of the population before the use of antitoxin; and during the antitoxin period of 1895–1904 it was 4.29.

The subsequent researches on the constitution of toxins and antitoxins by Ehrlich, Metchnikoff, Madsen, and others have been productive of a better understanding of the problems of immunity.

In 1892 Pfeiffer discovered the organism of influenza or grippe; and in 1894 Yersin and Kitasato independently discovered the bacterium of bubonic plague.

The now well-known serum diagnosis of typhoid fever, whereby living and motile typhoid bacilli are clumped and lose their motility when placed in the diluted serum of a patient suffering from the fever, was due to the work of Gruber and Durham, and the exploitation of the method by Widal, and dates from 1896.

In 1898, Shiga discovered the bacterium of dysentery, and the possible cause of pleuro-pneumonia in cattle was found by Nocard. This latter organism was so minute as to be at the extreme limit of microscopic definition, and suggested that other well-known diseases, such as foot-and-mouth disease, are probably caused by ultra-microscopic organisms.

This year, Ronald Ross worked out the relation between man, the mosquito, and the malarial parasite,—a discovery which at once suggested the best means of controlling the disease.

In 1905, Schaudinn definitely established the causal agent of syphilis, a spirochæte-shaped organism, which he named the *Treponema pallidum*, and which had escaped earlier discovery on account of its being refractory to the ordinary staining methods.

No one can deny that the progress of microbiology in the last forty years has been extraordinary; but much still remains unknown. The causes of some diseases have not been discovered. Smallpox, scarlet fever, yellow fever, mumps, whooping cough, epidemic infantile paralysis, hydrophobia, and others offer an inviting field to the medical microbiologist; and the many problems of soil microbiology call for solution by the agricultural microbiologist. Yet it cannot be said that the laborers are few.

The record of past achievements is an inspiration; and the knowledge that each discovery was the result of persistent and concentrated effort, may give us of the present day firmer faith and greater strength for work in the broad and inviting field before us.

PART I.

THE MORPHOLOGY AND CULTURE OF MICRO-ORGANISMS.

GENERAL.*

Microbiology includes *some algæ, a few specific molds,* which fall in the realm of pathogenesis (disease production), zymogenesis (fermentation-production), and laboratory manipulations; it deals mainly with *yeasts, bacteria,* and *invisible organisms;* it dips deeply into the expanse of *protozoa;* in short, it is concerned almost wholly with the field of *unicellular life.* On the one hand, the microbiologist meets the botanist and establishes reciprocal relations with him; on the other hand, he mixes with the zoölogist and delves into studies of mutual interest. Primarily, the *technic* of the microbiologist together with, in part, the *economic bearing* of the subject seems to be the determinant factor of limitation.

Assuming, therefore, that the province occupied by microbiologists consists of the study of *unicellular life-forms,* because such limitations have been established by actual studies and investigations, through the instrumentality of microbiological technic, it will be pertinent and clarifying to provide a general graphic outline at the start. By this means the student will be able to locate himself, whether he is just launching or has gotten far out on the troublesome and most fascinating sea of microbiology. The graphic outlines will always be his ready chart.

*Editor.

OUTLINE OF PLANT GROUPS.*

The following is a diagram of plant groups, showing one scheme of placing the bacteria, yeasts, and molds in relation to other groups. Only a few of the sub-groups can be shown in such a scheme.

- Plants
  - Schizophyta (fission-plants)
    - *Schizomycetes (fission-fungi), bacteria.*
    - Schizophyceæ (fission-algæ), blue-green algæ.
  - Thallophyta
    - Algæ
      - Chlorophyceæ—green algæ.
      - Phæophyceæ—brown algæ.
      - Rhodophyceæ—red algæ.
    - Characeæ.
    - Fungi
      - Myxomycetes.
      - Phycomycetes
        - Chytridineæ.
        - Zygomycetes (*Mucors*).
        - Oomycetes
          - Saprolegniaceæ (water fungi).
          - Peronosporaceæ (downy mildews).
      - Ascomycetes
        - Hemiasci (Monascus).
        - Euasci
          - Protoascineæ (*Saccharomyces, Yeasts*).
          - Protodiscineæ.
          - Discomycetes.
          - Plectascineæ (*Aspergillus*).
          - Pyrenomycetineæ.
      - Imperfect Fungi, Conidia only — *Penicillium, Fusarium, Alternaria, Oidium, Cladosporium, and others.*
      - Basidiomycetes
        - Rusts
        - Smuts
        - Mushrooms.
  - Bryophyta (mosses and liverworts)
  - Pteridophyta (ferns, etc.)
  - Spermatophyta (seed plants).

OUTLINE OF PROTOZOAL GROUPS.†

Limited on account of economic importance to "A CLASSIFICATION OF THE PATHOGENIC PROTOZOA." For discussion of *classification* see p. 76.

- Protozoa
  - Rhizopoda
    - Amœba
      - Amœba dysenteriæ
      - Amœba coli
      - Amœba meleagridis
      - Amœba buccalis
    - Plasmodiophora — Plasmodiophora brassicæ

* Charles Thom. † J. L. Todd.

- Protozoa
  - Flagellata
    - Spirochæta
      - Spirochæta obermeieri
      - Spirochæta duttoni
      - Spirochæta vincenti
      - Spirochæta pallidula
      - Spirochæta theileri
      - Spirochæta gallinarum
    - Treponema
      - Treponema pallidum
    - Herpetomonas
      - Herpetomonas donovani
      - Herpetomonas furunculosa
    - Crithidia
    - Trypanosoma
      - Trypanosoma gambiense
      - Trypanosoma cruzi
      - Trypanosoma brucei
      - Trypanosoma evansi
      - Trypanosoma equinum
      - Trypanosoma dimorphon
      - Trypanosoma lewisi
      - Trypanosoma equiperdum
    - Trypanoplasma
    - Cercomonas
    - Trichomonas
      - Trichomonas vaginalis
    - Monas
    - Plagiomonas
    - Lamblia
      - Lamblia intestinalis
  - Sporozoa
    - Gregarina
    - Coccidia
      - Coccidium
        - Coccidium cuniculi
        - Coccidium hominis
        - Coccidium avium
    - Hæmosporidia
      - Plasmodium
        - Plasmodium vivax
        - Plasmodium malariæ
        - Plasmodium falciparum
      - Proteosoma
      - Hæmoproteus
      - Lankesterella (and other Hæmogregarines)
      - Hepatozoön
      - Babesia
        - Babesia bigemina
        - Babesia canis
    - Sarcosporidia
      - Sarcocystis
        - Sarcocystis miescheriana
    - Haplosporidia
      - Rhinosporidium
        - Rhinosporidium kinealyi
    - Myxosporidia
      - Myxobolus
        - Myxobolus pfeifferi
    - Microsporidia
      - Nosema
        - Nosema bombycis
  - Infusoria
    - Balantidium
      - Balantidium coli

- Parasites of uncertain position
  - Histoplasma capsulatum
  - Chlamydozoa
  - Ultramicroscopic viruses

CHAPTER I.*

MOLDS.

Fungi in General.

A sharp line cannot be drawn between the bacteria and the fungi. Certain border groups such as *Leptothrix* and *Actinomyces*, filamentous forms in which branching and even the production of differentiated spores occur, are sometimes described as bacteria and sometimes as fungi. From the microscopic point of view, forms in which the cells can be handled as bacteria by cover-glass staining may be conveniently treated by bacteriologists. Forms in which the cells are larger, with definite walls, vacuoles, and cell sap, in which the cells collapse when dried and lose their distinguishing characters, may be better treated as fungi. No rule holds for all groups.

With some exceptions, there is, among the cells of the true fungi, a differentiation of function into vegetative or assimilative cells and reproductive cells. The fungous body is usually composed of threads (technically called *hyphæ*, singular, *hypha*). These *hyphæ* usually branch in more or less complex manner forming networks or webs, collectively called *mycelium*. Hyphæ may be one-celled or composed of many cells placed end to end as shown by the cross walls, called *septa*, seen in them. These threads grow either by the formation of new cells at the growing tips (called *apical growth*) or by the division of cells in the hypha (*intercalary growth*). The fungous cells rarely divide in three planes to produce solid masses of cells. Both vegetative and reproductive masses are formed in great variety from such hyphæ. Often the thread-like character is almost or quite obliterated in the ripe masses, which may be fleshy, woody, carbonaceous, leathery and even horn-like in texture, as seen especially in the mushrooms, bracket-fungi, etc., but even in such cases the early stages show the structures to originate from masses of fungous threads.

The formation of differentiated reproductive cells is, in general, characteristic of the fungi. The method of reproduction presents great

* Prepared by Charles Thom.

variety. In the simplest forms, the reproductive cells are scarcely if at all distinguishable from the vegetative cells. In some species whole hyphæ break up so that each cell forms the starting-point of a new colony. Other forms develop special branches bearing reproductive cells. From these it is but a step to the production of fruiting branches, characteristic in form, called *conidiophores*, bearing cells markedly specialized as reproductive by form and frequently also by color, called *conidia*. These conidia are entirely asexual in origin and capable of growing directly into new colonies, although in many cases they are provided with resistant walls which enable them to live for long periods if conditions are unfavorable to growth at once. In other species, specialized resting cells with resistant walls are formed to enable the plant to survive unfavorable conditions. These are called *chlamydospores* or sometimes *cysts*. The name *gemmæ* is sometimes applied to similar structures, preferably to such as grow at once. The same end is reached in still other groups by the formation of *sclerotia* which are hard masses or balls of thick-walled cells filled with concentrated food materials. These sclerotia are frequently distinctive of the species producing them by size and appearance. They sometimes resemble the sexual fruiting masses. Resting structures of either type, especially when large, commonly produce typical spore-bearing structures at once after germinating. Many very complex fruit bodies such as the mushrooms appear to be entirely asexual in origin.

The systems of classification used are largely based upon the types of sexual fruit bodies produced. Where such fruit bodies are not known, the method of formation of the asexual spores furnishes the most satisfactory basis for grouping. In classifying fungi, certain types of spore formation are found to be characteristic of particular groups. Since within these groups various accessory types of fruiting occur, so that some species show three or even more forms of spores, that type of spore formation which is regarded as characteristic of the group is known as the perfect stage. If sexual fruits are found, these constitute the perfect stage of the group; if no such fruit is found, the most characteristic asexual form is used, as for example the common mushroom of commerce which is asexually produced as far as we know, yet represents the most perfect and most constant fruiting form produced by a very large group. Between the typical forms are many graduations resulting in many families whose relationship to one or the other group is difficult to determine. Probably the ancestral history (phylogeny) of the fungi, if known, would show several

or many lines of descent rather than one. Certain of these groups may be presented briefly.

BACTERIA.—In the scheme of plant grouping presented (page 10), which is only one of many attempts to show relationships, the bacteria are placed with a group of single-celled green or blue-green forms as *Schizophyta* or fission-plants because of reproduction only by the division of the cells.

PHYCOMYCETES.—The *Phycomycetes* are called algal fungi because they resemble certain groups of green filamentous forms in many particulars. In this group two general types of sexual reproduction are met with,—zygospore formation and oospore formation. The first, found in the *Zygomycetes* represented by the common mucors, consists of the fusion of terminal cells of branches of the mycelium similar in appearance but differentiated in sex. As a result of this fertilization large thick-walled resting cells are produced, called *zygospores*, from a Greek root meaning yoked (see Fig. 2). In oospore formation, found in the *Oomycetes*, the conjugating cells differ in appearance as well as in function. The *oospore* is large and is rich in food materials; the *antheridium* is much smaller, penetrates and fertilizes the egg, which afterward develops into a thick-walled resting spore. The very destructive downy mildews belong to this group.

ASCOMYCETES.—In this great group sexuality was denied until recent years, but has been proved in cases enough to establish a presumption of more general occurrence. The characteristic structure of the group is the *ascus*, a sac containing, when ripe, typically eight spores, sometimes a less number by the failure of some to develop, sometimes a larger number usually some multiple of eight. The ascus where sexuality is known is developed subsequent to fertilization, not directly from an egg cell. The group presents a great variety of fruiting masses produced in connection with the asci. The simplest forms are loose webs of hyphæ enmeshing a few asci; other forms show clubs, cups, flask forms, crusted areas, the type of mass in each case being characteristic of the family, genus and species represented. Only a few of many thousands of these forms are encountered in bacteriological work. One genus is, however, constantly found. The commonest species of *Aspergillus* produces bright yellow, globose fruiting bodies, called *perithecia* filled with asci. These are borne upon the surface of the substratum and often give a yellow color to the colony by their abundance. Such perithecia consist of the ascog-

enous cells and the asci produced by them, about which a more or less completely closed sac or wall has been formed, by the development of the sterile cells adjacent to the fruiting ones.

BASIDIOMYCETES.—In the *Basidiomycetes* there is still further reduction of the evidences of sexuality. In one border group, the rusts, sexual processes have been shown to be more or less developed. In the typical Basidiomycetes sexuality is as yet undescribed if present at all. The typical structure is the *basidium*, a spore-bearing cell characteristically producing at its apex four protuberances called *sterigmata* (singular, *sterigma*), each bearing a single spore. These basidia are grouped into many kinds of fruit bodies, from occurrence here and there upon a loose web of hyphæ to dense columnar areas covering the gills of the mushrooms or lining the cavities of the puffballs. Very few of these species occur in bacteriological studies.

IMPERFECT FUNGI.—A very large number of species are known which have never been seen to produce the characteristic fruits of the great groups. These are brought together and described as form-genera by their method of asexual spore formation. From the lack of the organs used in classifying the other groups, these are called the *imperfect fungi* and their grouping regarded only as temporary, a convenience for the identification of materials. These include many forms of economic importance, and many of the species most frequently met in bacteriological work. Sometimes one species of a large group produces a perfect form while no other species can be induced to do so. Some of these species undoubtedly represent stages of perfect fungi whose perfect forms simply are not recognized as connected with these; others reproduce for an indefinite number of generations by conidia. Such cases do not appear to need the perfect form and hence apparently have, in some cases, lost the power to produce it.

As found in nature all these forms are parasitic, saprophytic, or capable of both modes of life. All depend more or less completely upon organic matter for nourishment. Great diversity exists, however, in their adaptation to environment. Many of them are not only parasitic but so closely adapted or parasitizing particular host-species as not to be found elsewhere. Others attack several or many species, usually related. Even among saprophytes many species are found only upon particular forms of decaying animal or vegetable matter. The great economic importance of these parasitic and closely adapted sapro-

phytic species has been recognized by the development in recent years of the literature of plant pathology (phytopathology). These cannot be considered in this work.

Specific Consideration of Molds.

A few species are found to grow very constantly in the same situations as bacteria. These are associated with forms of decay, fermentation, or disease, either as primary or secondary causes. They thus become important to the bacteriologist who studies them by the same methods as bacteria. These species belong to widely scattered groups of fungi, so that species found under the same conditions frequently differ greatly in appearance. The common term, molds, is applied collectively to these organisms, though no sharp limits can be set to the use of the term. Physiologically these species can be considered in three series:

Cosmopolitan Saprophytes.—Certain species are capable of growing within very wide limits of temperature and of composition of substrata. Many of these have accompanied man everywhere and are constantly found upon every kind of putrescible matter, especially as the causes of fermentation or decay in food. Their spores (conidia) are produced in countless numbers, and are so light that they float in air currents and are carried by contact in every conceivable manner by animals and by man. The life cycle from spore to spore is frequently very short, often being completed in twenty-four hours or less. Many of these forms are propagated for an indefinite number of generations by asexual spores or conidia, while for some of them no sexual-fruiting form is known. These species are the "weeds" of the bacterial culture-room, since they cannot be entirely eliminated and will survive, as a rule, conditions more severe than the bacteria themselves.

Molds of Fermentation.—A few species have acquired special importance by their fermentative action. In most cases these forms are widely distributed and able to utilize other media and conditions also. They differ from closely related species of the same genera in the ability to produce special enzymes or specially large amounts of such enzymes as bring about particular forms of fermentation. Certain of these species have been utilized in the manufacture of drinks, of citric acid, in cheese ripening, etc. Others are so adapted to growth under conditions of fermentation as to be found constantly in connection with

such processes, in which their vigorous growth and fermenting power seriously interferes with control of results.

PARASITES AND FACULTATIVE PARASITES.—A few molds are found as primary agents in causing diseases of man and animals. Some others enter as secondary infections, but become pathogenic after entrance. These comprise species of *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* which produce disease in the external ear of man, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, a cause of lung disease of birds, and the series of forms causing skin diseases, dermatomycoses, of both man and animals.

GENERIC CONSIDERATION OF GROUPS.*

THE MUCORS OR BLACK MOLDS.—The mucors or black molds constitute a large group of species belonging to the Phycomycetes or algal fungi whose general characters are a unicellar mycelium, at least in the vegetative stage, and quite generally a well-developed form of sexual reproduction (Figs. 1 and 2). In the mucors, the mycelium is usually richly developed within and often also on the surface of the substratum; asexual reproduction is accomplished by spores borne as conidia or borne within sporangia; and sexual reproduction is accomplished by the conjugation of special branches from the mycelium forming *zygospores* (Figs. 2 and 3). The typical mucors produce sporangia as capsule-like dilations at the ends of erect fertile hyphæ, each containing many spores. Septa are commonly developed in the mycelium when sporangia begin to appear. These fertile hyphæ may be microscopic or attain a length of several centimeters.

Important Species.—Perhaps the commonest form is *Rhizopus nigricans* (syn. *Mucor stolonifer*), the black mold of bread, a cosmopolitan species associated with the decay of many kinds of food stored in wet condition or in humid situations. Typical clusters of *sporangiophores* are borne on *stolons* or runners, which are hyphæ extending radially from the center of the colony and fastened to the substratum or to the support at intervals by root-like outgrowths above which several sporangiophores are produced. Abundant growth of this species is found only under

* The series of forms presented contains representatives of the most common groups as they occur in laboratory cultures, and such as have acquired importance to the worker in bacteriology by participation in processes regularly studied by the bacteriologist. For more complete discussion of the fungi, the student is referred to standard text-books of cryptogamic botany. For discussions of species, Lafar's Technical Mycology includes the groups found associated with the bacteria; for other groups, special botanical literature must be consulted.

very moist conditions or in substrata with high water content. *Rhizopus* is a very common contamination in laboratory cultures.

There are many common species of the genus *Mucor*, very few of which are identifiable without critical study. The specific names as commonly cited often designate groups of species or varieties rather than sharply marked forms. Certain of these may be briefly considered.

Mucor mucedo L. is a common form upon dung, characterized by heads (sporangia) upon long sporangiophores,* at first yellow then becom-

FIG. 2.—*Mucorineæ. Mucor. From Tabulæ Botanicæ*, showing sporangia originating from mycelium, spores and spore germination, and the formation of zygospores in a heterothallic species (diagrammatic). (Reduced one-half). (*By permission of A. F. Blaskeslee.*)

ing dark brown or black and studded upon the surface with needles of lime.

Mucor racemosus, Fresenius, is characterized by the production of chlamydospores or cysts in the mycelium within the substratum, as elliptical thick-walled cells. The sporangiophores typically branch to make racemes of sporangia. The racemose mucors are active agents in

*The term *sporangiophore* is composed of the word *sporangium* combined with the suffix *phore*, meaning bearer. In sympodial branching the first fruit is on the tip of the original hypha, the first branch arises below this fruit and is terminated by the second fruit. Each successive branch and fruit originates in similar manner.

changing starch to sugar and in the production of traces at least of alcohol from sugars.

Mucor rouxii (Calm), Wehmer, is the most important of a series of forms with sporangiophores branching sympodially which are active in changing starch to sugar and in producing traces at least of alcohol. The mycelium of *Mucor rouxii* develops in fluid cultures as yeast-like cells and groups of cells. The typical mucor fruits are produced only under special cultural conditions.

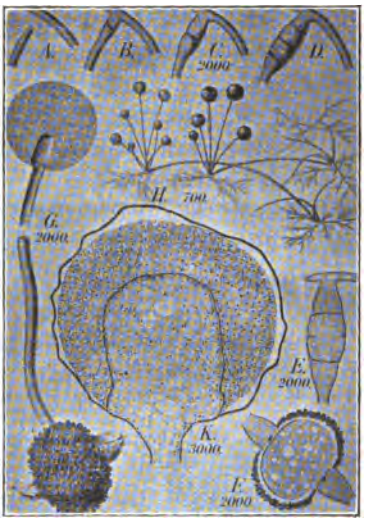


FIG. 3.—*Mucorineæ. Mucor, Rhizopus. A, B, C, D,* formation of the zygospores from conjugating branches; *E,* section of *D; F,* mature zygospore in section; *G,* germination of zygospore; *H,* diagram of fruiting stolons of *Rhizopus nigricans; K,* section of sporangium during spore formation, highly magnified. *From Tabulæ Botanicæ.* (Reduced one-half). (*By permission of A. F. Blaskeslee*).

Fermentation activity has been described for numerous species of *Mucor* and *Rhizopus*. Many of these species have been found and described as constituents of *Chinese yeasts*, or isolated in the study of the fermentation industries of Japan, China, and other eastern countries. Among them are *Mucor circinelloides*, Van Tieghem, *Mucor javanicus*, Wehmer, *Mucor plumbeus*, Bonorden, *Rhizopus oryzæ*, Went, *Rhizopus javanicus*. The fermenting power of mucors like that of yeasts varies

greatly with the species or even with races used, approaching in some species the efficiency of the more active yeasts.

THAMNIDIUM.—Of related genera, *Thamnidium* differs from *Mucor*

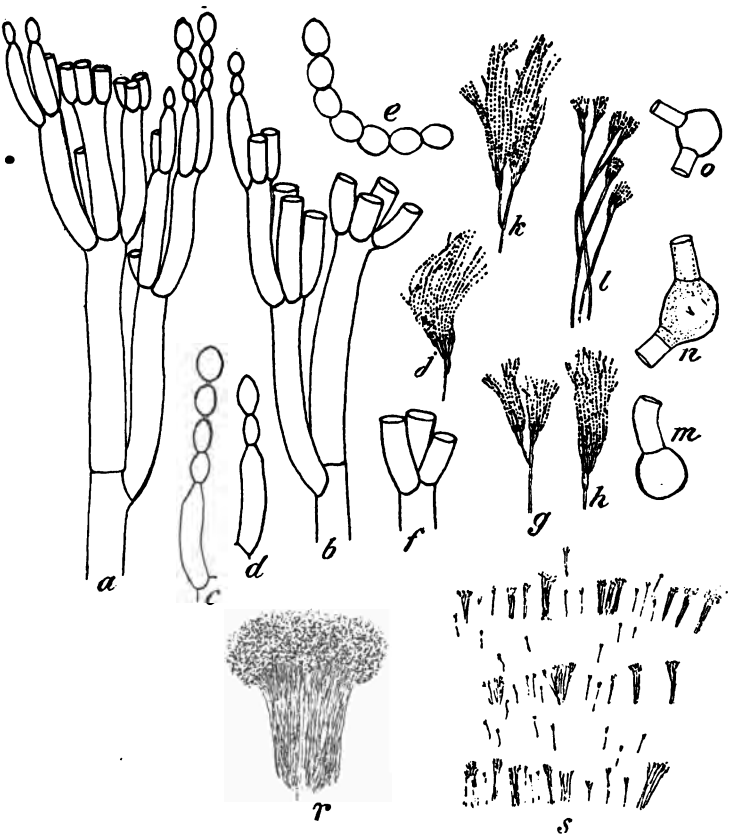


FIG. 4.—*Penicillium expansum*, Link. *a*, *b*, *f*, Branching and arrangement of branches of conidial fructification (×900); *c*, *d*, *e*, conidiiferous cells and conidial chains (×900); *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, sketches of fructifications (×140); *m*, *n*, *o*, germination of conidia (×900); *r*, *s*, sketches from photographs showing in *s* loose aggregations of conidiophores beginning to develop into zonately arranged coremia, in *r* a coremium 1 mm. in height. (*From Bul.* 118, *Bureau of Animal Industry, U. S. Dept. Agriculture*).

in the production of two kinds of sporangia. The terminal sporangium of a fruiting hypha resembles that of *Mucor;* the secondary or accessory sporangia which are borne upon side branches of the sporangiophores

are smaller, lack the columella, and produce few to several spores within an outer wall.

Thamnidium elegans, Link, produces primary and secondary sporangia on different hyphæ, together making white colonies. The fertile side branches are produced in whorls and bear whorls of branchlets from their centers which in turn produce sporangioles from the tips of short straight twigs or branchlets.

PENICILLIUM.—The extremely abundant green molds most frequently belong to the genus *Penicillium*, although some members of other groups may be confused with them at times.

Characters.—Colonies are composed of loosely woven hyphæ, branched, septate, colorless, or bright colored. The fertile hyphæ (conidiophores) are mostly erect, arising either from submerged hyphæ, or as branches of aerial hyphæ, septate, usually branched only in the fruiting portion. Conidial fructifications consist of more or less complex systems of branches and branchlets, the ultimate fertile cells each producing a chain of conidia (Fig. 3). The whole system is usually grouped near the end of the conidiophore, giving the appearance of one or more brooms or brushes (whence the name). Very few species are known to produce asci, hence these are rarely encountered. The conidial form continues for an indefinite number of generations, therefore all the activities of the genus are associated with this form.

Cultural Considerations.—Among the numerous species and races, some of the green forms are widely distributed and almost omnivorous in habit. Other species are closely restricted to particular substrata. Starches and sugars appear to be especially favorable components of nutrient media for members of the group. The larger number of the species grows best at temperatures from 15° to 30°; a very few of them reach their optimum at 37°, but many species are entirely inhibited and some killed at blood-heat. Vegetative mycelium begins to be produced at temperatures very close to freezing, but colored conidia are produced slowly or not at all at low temperatures. The species of *Penicillium* thrive through a wide range of concentration of culture media, though perhaps the most characteristic growths are produced in media high in water content. The common species of each genus will grow in all the standard bacteriological media. With few exceptions the species grow well in synthetic media composed of assimilable carbohydrates and inorganic salts. A few species require the presence of

some one of the higher nitrogenous compounds, but many species refuse to produce typically colored fruit without some form of starch or sugar in addition to ordinary peptone and beef-extract. Very few species grow well in alkaline media, but most species are tolerant of organic acids at the concentrations found in fruits and vegetables.

Some Common Species.—Penicillium roqueforti, Thom, is a green form constantly found in pure culture in Roquefort cheese, frequently also in ensilage. It is widely distributed and grows under many sets of conditions.

Penicillium camemberti, Thom, is the chief organic agent in ripening Camembert cheese. Cultures of this species are floccose or cottony, at first white, later gray-green.

Penicillium expansum, Link, is a green form, always obtainable from apples decaying in storage, upon which it frequently produces large *coremia*. It is one of the most abundant species of the genus, widely distributed in different countries. In cultures, colonies produce a characteristic odor, suggestive of its common habitat, decaying apples.

Penicillium brevicaule, Saccardo, is a form with rough or spiny brown spores which has been used physiologically to detect the presence of arsenic by its ability to set free arsine from such substrata. Except species associated with particular processes or substrata, the identification of the green species of *Penicillium* requires special methods and greater care than is possible aside from special study of the group.

ASPERGILLUS (AND STERIGMATOCYSTIS).—The genus *Aspergillus* includes numerous species which develop under widely different conditions. Many of these forms reach their typical development under drier conditions than *Penicillium* and *Mucor*, such as stored grain, herbarium specimens, dried flesh, or foods containing concentrated sugars, such as jams, jellies, etc. Some excite processes of fermentation, and a few are associated with diseases.

Characters.—The vegetative hyphæ are creeping, submerged in the substratum or sometimes aerial also, loose, floccose, branched, septate, usually colorless, and sometimes bright colored. Conidiophores or fertile hyphæ are erect, unseptate, or few-septate, usually much larger in diameter than the vegetative hyphæ, and gradually enlarged upward, ending in a more or less abrupt dilation or head which bears closely packed columnar sterigmata or conidifierous cells over the whole or a large part of its surface (Fig. 6). Each of these cells bears, in one group of species, a

single chain of conidia, in other species (called by some authorities *Sterigmatocystis*) three or four secondary sterigmata which bear the conidial chains. Part of the species produce also thin-walled perithecia as yellow or brown spherical bodies upon the surface of the substrata. These perithecia are filled with eight-spored asci (Fig. 5). A few species produce sclerotia instead of asci, but many species are not known to produce either perithecia or sclerotia.

Important Species.—Among the species constantly met with, *Aspergillus niger* is recognizable by its black or very dark brown spores and in some

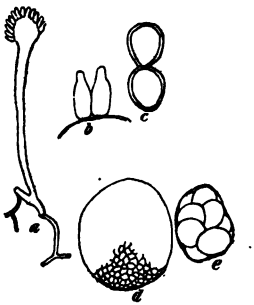


FIG. 5.

FIG. 5.—*Aspergillus glaucus*. *a*, Conidiophore showing increased diameter over the vegetative cells at its base (×128); *b*, sterigmata (×450); *c*, conidia, smooth thick walled in this variety, other varieties are spiny, (×450); *d*, perithecium (×128); *e*, ascus containing ascospores (×450). (Original.)

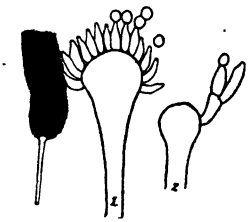


FIG. 6.

FIG. 6.—*Aspergillus*. (1) *A. fumigatus*, Fres; (2) *A. nidulans*. 1 and 2 show the complete sterigmata of *A fumigatus* and the secondary sterigmata of *A. nidulans*. The conidia of these species do not remain attached in ordinary fluid mounts. (Original.)

strains by black sclerotia. Several black-spored forms are described, but their separation is usually impossible from the data given. *Aspergillus niger* ferments sugar solutions with the production of oxalic acid in considerable quantity.

Of green forms, *Aspergillus glaucus*, Link (*Aspergillus herbariorum*, Wiggers), and *Aspergillus repens*, De Bary, both produce abundant yellow perithecia. These abound upon herbarium specimens, hay, grain, concentrated foods, such as jellies, preserves, and dried meats upon which they produce green conidial areas which are later dotted with bright yellow perithecia.

Aspergillus fumigatus, Fresenius, is a green form characterized by

short conidiophores enlarging gradually into heads and bearing a single set of sterigmata on the very apex, with chains of thin-walled green spores about 3μ in diameter. This species produces a destructive disease of birds known as aspergillosis. The same species is sometimes reported as pathogenic to man.

Aspergillus nidulans differs by having two sets of sterigmata, but otherwise frequently closely resembles *Aspergillus fumigatus* and is frequently mentioned as pathogenic.

Aspergillus oryzæ has been used to produce "Takadiastase" from rice in Japan. Other species produce amylase also, but in different degrees.

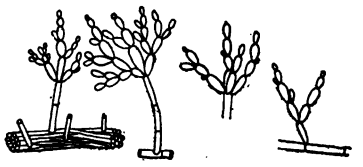


FIG. 7.

FIG. 7.—*Cladosporium herbarum* (*r*), showing the forms of conidiophores and conidia which are very common upon laboratory culture media. (Original.)

FIG. 8.

FIG. 8.—Spores of *Alternaxia sp.* (Original.)

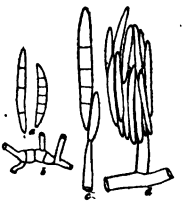


FIG. 9.

FIG. 9.—*Fusarium* from decaying potato. *a*, spores showing curvature and septa; *b*, germination of spores; *c*, development of spores in petri-dish culture; *d*, mass of spores as found in culture. (Original).

Aspergillus wentii, Wehmer, characterized by its long conidiophores and coffee-colored heads of conidia, is found in the Soja preparation in Java.

Of other forms constantly met, *Aspergillus candidus* has white or pale cream fruiting surfaces, *Aspergillus flavus* produces several shades of yellow and green, *Aspergillus ochraceus*, ocher or tan.

Much confusion is still found in the literature of this genus, so that frequent references to the activities of particular species are difficult or impossible to verify.

CLADOSPORIUM (AND HORMODENDRON).—The species of *Cladosporium* occur frequently in cultures of decaying vegetable matter, of milk and cream, or butter. The colonies liquefy gelatin. Both mycelium

and spores are at first colorless, but later dark colored to almost black, with spores becoming two-celled in very old cultures.

Cladosporium herbarum is the commonest species encountered.* Colonies in culture media differ so greatly in structure from those upon natural substrata as to make identification of species questionable. Fig. 6. Much confusion is therefore found in the use of the names of species of *Cladosporium* and the related genus, *Hormodendron*, which is separated by some.

ALTERNARIA AND FUSARIUM.—The frequent occurrence of species of *Alternaria* and *Fusarium* in cultures demands that the generic characters be recognized. Both, as a rule, produce abundant growth with a tendency to over-run cultures of other forms (Figs. 8 and 9). The spores of *Alternaria* are brown, Indian-club form, muriform (divided into several cells by longitudinal as well as cross walls), and are connected together into chains (Fig. 8). The spores of *Fusarium* are colorless, either straight or sickle- or crescent-shaped, divided into several cells by cross walls occur singly or adhere into masses on the tips of the fertile branchlets The morphology of colonies in culture varies widely from the descriptions of the same species under natural conditions. Species of *Fusarium* frequently produce bright colors in the mycelium and substrata; colonies of *Alternaria* often become almost black. Identification of species in cultures is thus far impossible, except for the specialist.

OIDIUM.—*Oidium* (*Oospora*) *lactis* is universally found in cultures from milk and milk-products and very frequently in decaying vegetables, manure, etc. Colonies of the species are colorless, have vegetative mycelium entirely submerged, become powdery white with spores when mature, liquefy gelatin, and produce a strong characteristic odor (Fig. 10). Microscopically the species is recognized by dichotomous branching of the hyphæ at the margin of the colonies, and by the spores or oidia which are abruptly cylindrical, varying with conditions in length and diameter and produced both above and below the surface of the substratum in long chains which break up readily. At times the whole mycelium appears to break up into oidia. *Oidium lactis* is a factor in the ripening of many kinds of cheese: Limburg, Harz, Camembert, Gorgonzola, etc. Its activity is associated with strong odor and taste.

MONILIA.—*Monilia candida* (Bonorden), Hansen. The line be-

* This species has been shown to be a conidial form of *Sphærella tulasnei* Janczewski, but the bacteriological student will meet only the conidial stage.

tween the *Mycoderma group of yeasts*, *Oidium* and *Monilia*, and the well-fixed mold types shows a number of organisms which are found repeatedly in the fermentation industries (Fig. 11). One of these, *Monilia candida*, as described by Hansen, has been much studied. In morphology, *Monilia candida* appears as a yeast in young cultures in sugary fluids,

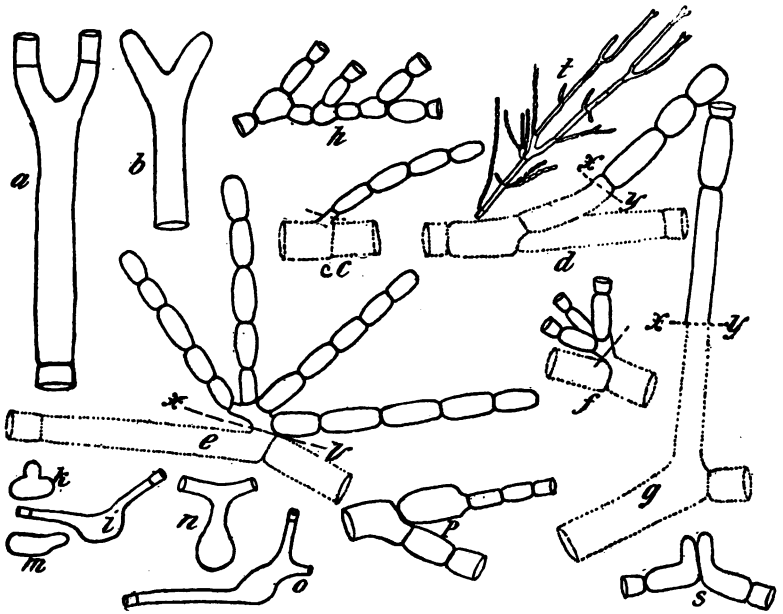


FIG. 10.—*Oidium lactis*. *a*, *b*, dichotomous branching of growing hyphæ; *c*, *d*, *g*, simple chains of oidia breaking through substratum at dotted line *x*–*y*, dotted portions submerged; *e*, *f*, chains of oidia from a branching out-growth of a submerged cell; *h*, branching chain of oidia; *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *o*, *p*, *s*, types of germination of oidia under varying conditions; *t*, diagram of a portion of a colony showing habit of *Oidium lactis* as seen in culture media. (*From Bul.* 82, *Bur. Animal Industry, U. S. Dept. Agr.*).

but later develops a mycelium. It produces an alcoholic fermentation which increases in vigor with the rise of temperature toward 40°.

DEMATIUM.—One species of *Dematium*, *Dematium pullulans*, has been much studied. This is frequently found upon decaying fruit as dark brown colonies. In culture, mycelium is sparingly produced, either colorless or colored, and conidia are borne in clusters and chains all along the hyphæ submerged in the substratum. At first both mycelium

and conidia are colorless, later some or all of the cells develop heavy dark brown walls. Although not active as an agent of fermentation, it occurs very frequently in the fermentation industries sometimes discoloring the fermenting products. The conidia bud out from the cells

FIG. 11.—A colony of *Monilia candida*. (*Photographed by Zae Northrup.*)

of the mycelium in a manner resembling the yeasts. Its occurrence with the yeasts has led to many careful descriptions of its several types of spore production and its biological activities.

SAPROLEGNIACEÆ AND ENTOMOPHTHORACEÆ.—These are two groups of *Phycomycetes* which differ from the mucors in habit and in their prominent development of sexual reproduction.

ENTOMOGENOUS FUNGI.—Numerous species have been identified as the destroyers of particular insects.

CHAPTER II.

YEASTS.*

Morphology of Certain Types.

Definition and Bases of Classification.—If the cloudy freshly expressed juice of grapes or other fruits be passed through a centrifuge, the sediment will be found to consist principally of amorphous particles of dirt and plant tissue. If the clear juice is now allowed to stand in a warm place for a few days it will ferment and the sediment thrown down by the centrifuge may be shown by the microscope to consist principally of unicellular microörganisms.

These microscopic cells are called collectively "yeast" and belong to various groups of fungi. Some of them are special vegetative forms of *Phycomycetes* (*Mucor*), others of *Ascomycetes* (*Saccharomyces*, *Aspergillus*), while others are unknown in any other form and are classed as *Fungi imperfecti* (*Mycoderma*, *Torula*). They are widely distributed in nature and some of them occur on all exposed surfaces and particularly on moist organic substances containing sugar and acid. The true yeasts (*Saccharomycetes*), which are of the greatest importance industrially, occur naturally on the raw material (*S. ellipsoideus* on grapes) or are known only in the cultivated condition (*S. cerevisiæ* of beer)

The true yeasts occur in the form of spherical or more or less elongated cells varying in normal width from 2.5μ to 12μ. The first classifications were based on shape and size alone but these vary and depend so much on cultural conditions that they are of little value in differentiating species or varieties.

The range of variation in shape and size, especially of the spores, under given conditions of culture medium and temperature, is now used only in conjunction with the reactions brought about in various solutions to distinguish the various forms.

The true yeasts are characterized by the formation of endospores and are classed with the *Gymnoasceæ*. Each cell seems capable, under

* Prepared by F. T. Bioletti.

favorable conditions, of developing into an ascus. Many unsuccessful attempts have been made to connect the true yeasts genetically with various forms of fungi such as *Mucor*, *Ustilago* and *Dematium*. At present they must be considered as distinct species.

GENERAL MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TRUE YEASTS.—The yeast cell consists of an enclosing membrane and its contents. It may be normally nearly spherical (*S. cerevisiæ*), ellipsoidal (*S. ellipsoideus*) or sausage shaped (*S. pasteurianus*).

The cell wall is thin at first, becoming thicker with age (0.5μ to 1.0μ) It consists of two or more layers and may be shown distinctly by treat-

FIG. 12.—Yeast cell. (Original.)

ment with glycerin, salt solution or dilute acids or alkalis. Under certain conditions, it may give off a mucilage which forms a gelatinous network, enclosing the cells and forming a kind of zooglea. This occurs most noticeably in film or ring formation where oxygen has free access.

The *cell contents* consist of a network of protoplasm, containing a single *nucleus* near one end. This nucleus can be seen only after hardening and staining. In young cells the contents appear transparent and homogeneous. As the cell enlarges, one or more *vacuoles* or cavities filled with cell-sap appear. In each vacuole are usually one to three highly refringent bodies, the *vacuole-granules*, which appear to be decomposition products. They are extremely minute, show brownian movement, and stain rapidly with a very dilute solution of neutral red. In old cells, the contents become less transparent and numerous refringent *granules* appear. These granules are easily stained with methyl-

green and are slowly soluble in alcohol, ether, chloroform and caustic potash. They appear to be of a fatty nature. Dead cells are usually opaque and are distinguished by their staining more rapidly and deeply than living cells.

Some yeasts have a tendency during fermentation to remain at the bottom of the liquid; others form a thick foamy layer on top. These are known respectively as *bottom* and *top* yeasts. No sharp distinction can be made as there are intermediate forms.

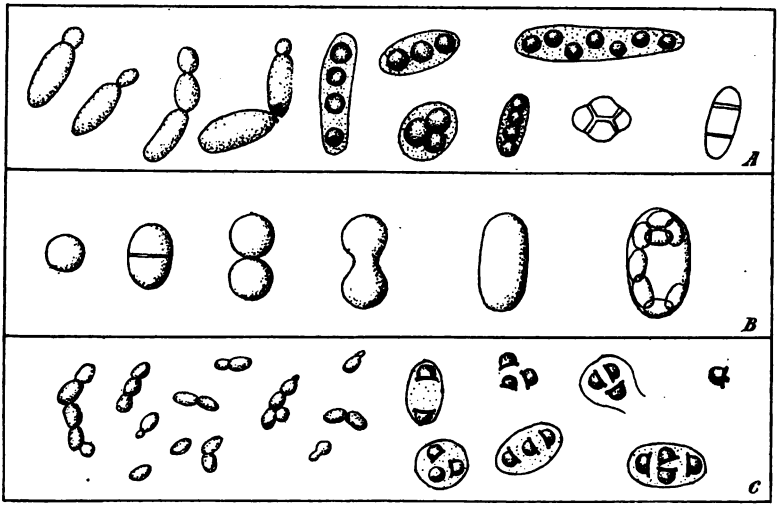


FIG. 13.—Spore-bearing cells. *A. S. pasteurianus.* (*After Bioletti*); *B. Sch. octosporus.* (*After Schiönning*); *C. S. anamolus.* (*After Kayser.*)

The vegetative reproduction in the genus *Saccharomyces* takes place by budding, in *Schizosaccharomyces* by fission.

The extreme temperatures for budding lie between 1° and 47°, varying with different species. The optimum temperature varies in the same way between 25° and 35°. The rate of multiplication under favorable conditions will vary from one to several hours for the formation of a new cell.

When young, vigorous, well-nourished cells are supplied with abundant air and moisture at a comparatively high temperature under conditions that discourage budding (lack of nutriment) they form *endospores.* These spores are usually about half the diameter of the mother cell and from one to eight or more may occur in each cell. They may be formed

by cells before or after budding and may even change to asci and form new spores. They are generally spherical or slightly ellipsoidal, rarely kidney-shaped (*S. marxianus*) or furnished with a zonal ring (*S. anomalus*) (Fig. 13.)

In nutrient solutions they swell, burst the mother cell, become free and germinate by budding, usually producing vegetative cells directly, though occasionally producing first a short promycelium (*S. ludwigii*).

In *Schizosaccharomyces octosporus* the ascus is formed by the fusion of two cells. Sometimes in other species, two or more spores in one cell will fuse before germination.

Staining with warm carbol-fuchsin and partial decolorization with weak acetic acid leaves the spores red and the cell colorless.

The Principal Yeasts of Importance to Fermentation Industries.

True Yeasts, Saccharomycetes.—The various yeasts used in brewing and some of those used in producing distilling material are grouped together as *S. cerevisiæ*. They are large and round or slightly oval.

They are divided into three main groups—the *bottom yeasts* which are used in the manufacture of German beer, and which, usually, are capable of producing only a moderate amount of alcohol; the *top yeasts*, used in English beers and compressed yeast, capable of producing more alcohol, and the *distillery yeasts*, which have great fermentative power and produce large amounts of alcohol.

Many forms of these yeasts have been described in great detail by Hansen and others but the distinctions are based principally on physiological pecularities such as the temperature and time limits of film and spore formation, and the character of the fermented liquids. The various forms seem to be fixed, and to retain their characteristics unchanged under almost all forms of treatment.

The wine yeasts, *S. ellipsoideus*, seem to be even more diverse than the beer yeasts, but have been less thoroughly studied. They are somewhat smaller than the latter and usually slightly more elongated. They form spores much more abundantly and easily than the beer yeasts and the cells in film formation are often much elongated.

Their fermentative power is considerable, some of them being capable of producing over 16 per cent by volume of alcohol. They differ in the flavors and aromas which they produce in the fermented liquid, and especially in the rapidity with which they settle. Some yeasts, such as those of Champagne and Burgundy, form a compact sediment which settles

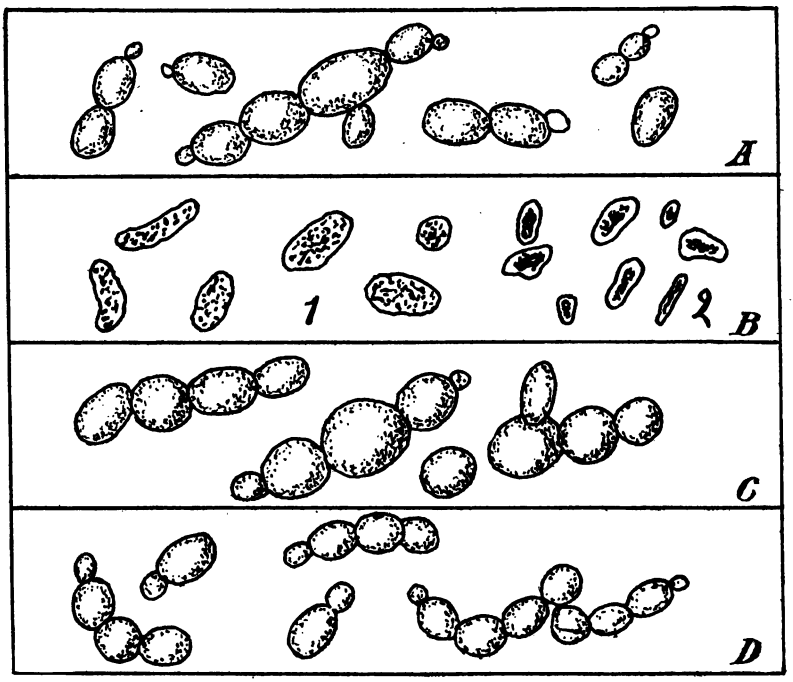


FIG. 14.—Wine and beer yeasts. *A*, *S. ellipsoideus*, young and vigorous; *B*, *S. ellipsoideus*, (1) old, (2) dead; *C*, *S. cerevisiæ*, bottom yeast; *D*. *S. cerevisiæ*. top yeast. (Original.)

quickly and leaves the liquid clear. Others remain suspended for a long time and settle with difficulty.

Every region seems to have its own forms and the characteristics of the various forms seem to be as well fixed as those of beer yeasts.

Wines are manufactured by the use of these yeasts. They are also employed in distilleries. In breweries they are considered *disease yeasts* and have a deleterious effect on the beer.

S. pyriformis resembles in shape *S. ellipsoideus*, and in association with *Bacterium vermiforme* produces ginger beer.

S. vordermanni is concerned in the manufacture of *arrack*. It ferments the sugar produced from rice by the molds, *Mucor oryzæ* and *Rhizopus oryzæ*.

S. fragilis and other yeasts have been found in kefir and other fermented drinks made from milk. These yeasts working in conjunction with bacteria produce alcoholic acid beverages.

Many true yeasts are more or less injurious. They do not, like bacteria and pseudo yeasts, cause serious diseases, capable of completely ruining the fermented product, but they may injure the quality more or less. Some yeasts are useful in certain cases and injurious in others. If beer yeasts become contaminated with wine yeast the resulting beer may be persistently turbid. If any one attempts to ferment grapes with beer yeast, a wine with a disagreeable beer aroma and of poor keeping qualities is produced.

S. pasteurianus occurs in several forms as an injurious yeast in breweries, causing bitterness and turbidity. Similar forms occur in wine but do little harm except in the absence of the true wine yeast. The cells of this species vary from oval to long ellipsoidal, often being much elongated and in film formation sometimes producing a branching mycelium. Spores are formed easily and abundantly.

The apiculate yeast, *S. apiculatus*, is very abundant on grapes, and most acid fruits. It is very variable and undoubtedly includes many varieties. The cells are small, vary in shape from oval to cylindrical, most of them having an apiculation at one or both ends, making them pear or lemon shaped. According to Lindner they form spores in drop cultures, one in a cell. Under favorable conditions this yeast increases with great rapidity, but is checked by 3 to 5 per cent. of alcohol. It causes cloudiness in wine, interferes with the growth of the proper yeast and injures the flavor.

Many yeasts, mostly small and some of them rose-colored, have been found on grapes and in wine, but they do not develop under ordinary conditions of wine making sufficiently to be harmful.

Schizosaccharomyces pombe is a yeast found in *pombe* or *millet* beer, made by negroes in Africa. It is cylindrical and large, though variable in size. Both ends are rounded. It multiplies by forming a septum near one end, the smaller division then growing into a normal cell. From one

to four spores are formed in a cell. These spores are often produced in the fermenting liquid. The fermentative power is high and a large percentage of alcohol may be formed.

Several other species of this genus have been isolated from grapes and from Jamaica rum.

PSEUDO YEASTS.—Budding cells often occur in fermenting liquids which have all the characteristics of yeast except that of producing endospores. They are grouped together under the name of Torula. They are usually small, spherical or slightly elongated. Some species produce a little alcohol and some none. They seldom occur in sufficient quantities to be harmful and one form is accredited with producing the special flavor of some English beers.

The groups of forms included under *Mycoderma* resemble yeast in form but produce little or no alcohol, are strongly aerobic and do not produce endospores. Their most noticeable characteristic is that they grow only on the surface of the liquid, where they produce a thick film. They cause complete combustion of the alcohol and other organic matters, making beer and wine vapid and finally spoiling them.

CULTURE OF YEASTS.

PURE CULTURES.—Yeast can be properly studied only in pure cultures. The media used are either the liquids in which the yeasts are to be used as wort, cider, grape juice, or a special medium devised for a special investigation. An example of the latter is Laurent's medium:

Ammonium sulphate,	4.71 g.
Potassium phosphate,	.75 g.
Magnesium sulphate,	.10 g.
Water,	1 L.

To this is to be added any carbohydrate to be studied. Media may be made solid by the addition of gelatin or agar.

Pure cultures can be made, rarely, by inoculation from a naturally pure source, such as the sporangium of a *Mucor*.

Physiological Separation.—The first attempts at purifying mixed cultures were by means of physiological differences. Pasteur freed yeast from bacteria by growing it in a medium containing 2 per cent of tartaric acid. Effront used fluorides in the same way. These methods may be made more effective by repeated transfers of the culture. Each transfer will contain a larger proportion of the form most suited to the condi-

tions, until finally a pure culture may be obtained. The principle of these methods is of great use in practical fermentation, but is of little use in rigidly separating forms. Methods of general application for the latter purpose must be such that a single cell can be isolated in a sterile medium and a culture propagated from this single cell.

Separation by Dilution in Liquid Media.—A mixed culture is diluted with sterilized

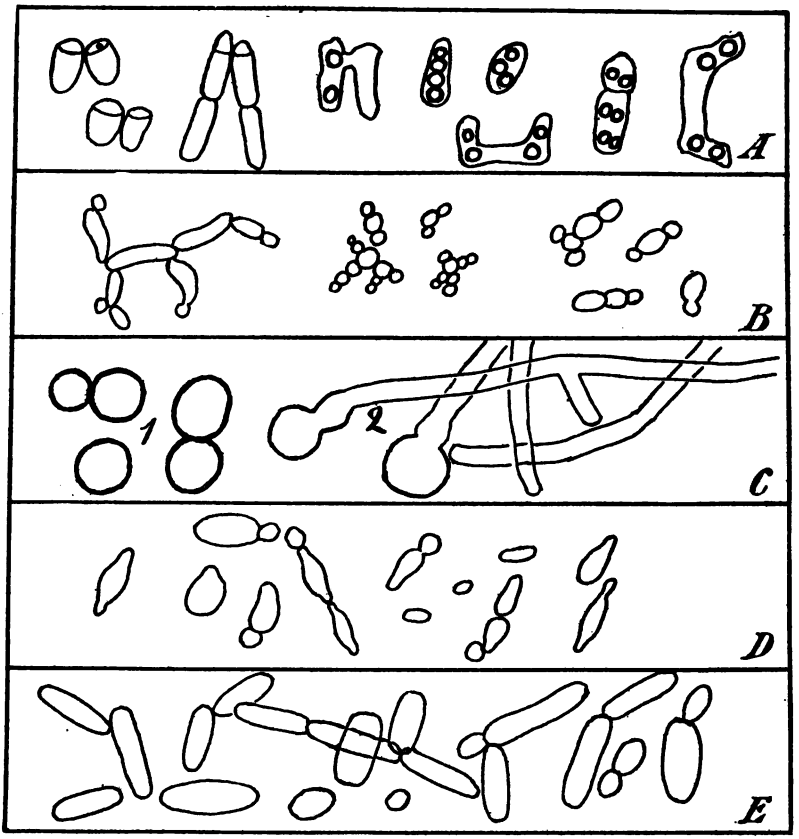


FIG. 15.—Wild and pseudo-yeasts. *A, S. pombe. (After Lindner); B, Torulæ. (After Pasteur); C, Mucor,* (1) spores; (2) germinating spores and mycelium; *D, S. apiculatus; E, mycodermavini. (After Biolatti.)*

water until each two drops contain one cell. A large number of flasks of a sterilized nutrient medium is then inoculated from the dilution, one drop in each flask. If the dilution has been properly made, about half of the flasks will remain sterile and half will show growth. Many or most of the latter will contain pure cultures.

Separation by Dilution in Solid Media.—If we dip a sterilized platinum wire in a

mixed culture and then draw it repeatedly over the surface of a solid culture medium such as a slice of sterilized potato or a layer of nutrient gelatin in a Petri dish we will get a series of *streak cultures*. The first of these will develop a strong growth of mixed forms. The last will show more and more isolated colonies until some of them will show only a few, some of which may be pure cultures.

The most useful method of separation and one which is applicable to most cases is that of *plate cultures*, first used by Koch and improved by others. In this method a drop of the mixed culture is thoroughly distributed in 10 to 20 c.c. of liquefied nutrient gelatin or agar. A drop of this mixture is then diluted in the same way in another portion of the same medium. This process is continued until the requisite degree of dilution is obtained. The various portions of nutrient gelatin are then poured, with precautions against outside infection, in glass plates or more conveniently into petri dishes. On cooling and solidifying, the gelatin imprisons every cell, each of which on growing gives rise to a colony. It has been found that in practice a small percentage of these colonies may arise from two adhering cells and thus fail to be pure culture.

Hansen's modification of the method is intended to obviate this uncertainty. By making the dilutions in the way described for liquid media, a drop of gelatin containing only one cell is obtained, placed on a cover-glass over a culture slide and, by direct observation, the presence of a single cell verified. The development and multiplication of this cell can be watched.

DIFFERENTIATION OF YEASTS.—With magnifications of 300 to 500, yeast cells can be examined conveniently. Contamination with bacteria and molds of special form can be detected, but otherwise a simple microscopic examination is of little value in determining the purity of a culture. Some information regarding the health, nutrition and vitality of the yeast may be obtained and the form of the spores is of some value in distinguishing species. Yeast cells vary in size as much as in form but under standard conditions each variety will show a certain normal range of dimensions.

If a young, vigorous yeast, in a favorable liquid culture medium, is allowed to remain at rest at a suitable temperature with full access to air and protection from contamination, a growth of cells on the surface will usually take place. This growth may extend over the whole surface (*film formation*) or may be restricted to the edges (*ring formation*). This growth occurs at once with a few species (*S. membranæfaciens*) or at the end of several days (*S. ellipsoideus II*) or may require several weeks. The time and optimum temperature of film formation have been used as descriptive characters.

All the morphological and cultural characteristics of yeast are insufficient for diagnostic purposes and must be supplemented by the physiological characteristics such as their action on various sugars and other carbohydrates.

CHAPTER III.

BACTERIA.*

FORM.

FUNDAMENTAL FORM TYPES.—The form of bacteria is exceedingly simple. They are either spheres, straight rods, or bent rods (spiral). In the spherical form they are known as *cocci*, or *micrococci* (sing. *coccus* or *micrococcus*). The straight rods are *bacilli* (sing. *bacillus*) and the bent rods are *spirilla* (sing. *spirillum*).

FIG. 16.—Types of micrococci. (*After Williams.*)

FIG. 17.—Types of bacilli. (*After Williams.*)

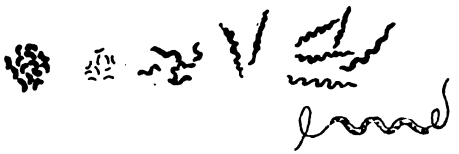


FIG. 18.—Types of spirilla. (*After Williams.*)

GRADATIONS.—The difference between these fundamental form types is frequently very slight. It becomes a very difficult matter, for instance, to distinguish at times between the micrococcus and the bacillus. There is a number of bacteria, and among them the well-known example of *B. prodigiosus*, that are described at one time by one investigator as

* Prepared by W. D. Frost.

micrococci and at another time, or, by another investigator, as bacilli. The pneumonia germ is also another illustration of an organism that occupies a dual position. Migula has suggested a method of differentiating these which will be discussed under a later head. The bacilli pass almost imperceptibly into the spirilla. The cholera organism has been described as a bacillus as well as a spirillum.

INVOLUTION FORMS.—The form of bacteria is quite constant under normal conditions, but very frequently they show abnormal or bizarre

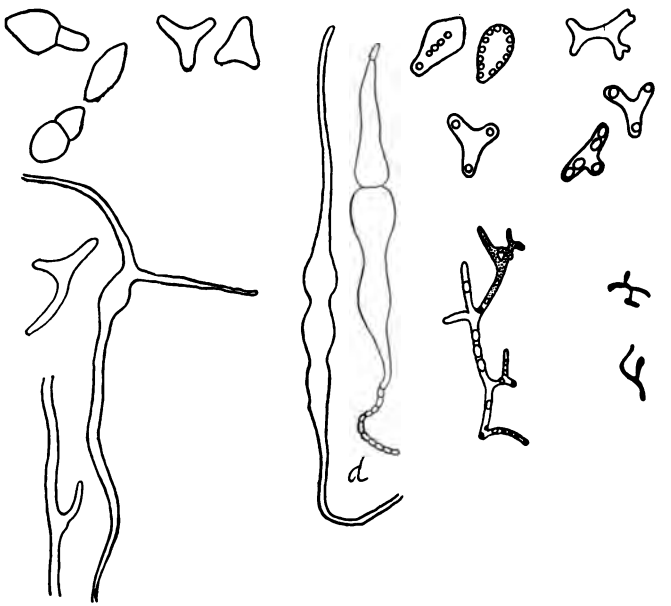


FIG. 19.—*Involution forms.* Here are illustrated unusual forms of *B. subtilis*, water bacteria, *Bact. aceti*, *Bact. pasteurianum*, bacteroids from root nodules, *Bact. tuberculosis*, *Bact. diphtheriæ*. (*After Fischer from Frost and McCampbell.*)

forms. These are known as involution forms (Fig. 19). It is sometimes suggested that these involution forms represent another stage in the developmental history of the organism, and upon this supposition certain bacteria which very regularly show these involution forms have been classified as belonging to quite a different order from that to which the bacteria belong. The ordinary view of the involution forms is that they are degeneration forms, that they correspond, in other, words to the halt

and maimed in society and are to be accounted for by the fact that they are deformed by their own by-products. In fact, it is quite probable that they are autogenic. Involution forms are very likely to occur in artificial culture and are much more common with some species than with others.

Size.

The bacteria were formerly spoken of as the smallest of living things, but since the recognition of the ultramicroscopic organisms it is necessary to be somewhat more specific in characterizing their dimensions. The unit of measurement in microscopy is the micron (μ), or micromillimeter. This is .001 of a mm. or approximately 1/25000 of an inch. Applying this unit to the bacteria we find that the micrococci and the short diameter of the bacilli and spirilla average about 1μ. The micrococci vary in diameter from a small fraction of a micron to three or four microns in diameter. The bacilli are sometimes very small, as the influenza bacterium with a width of 0.2μ and a length of 0.5μ, and sometimes very large as, for example, the *Bact. anthracis* with a width of 1.2μ and a length of 5.20 μ. The spirilla average about 1.0μ in diameter but may be as long as 30μ–40μ.

Motility.

When bacteria are viewed under the microscope in a living condition many of them are seen to move. This movement may be one of two kinds. In some cases it is progressive, the individuals move about from one part of the field of the microscope to another and change their relative positions. In other cases the movement is vibratory, they move back and forth but do not progress or change their relative positions to any extent. This latter form of movement is known as *brownian movement*, because it was first described by Brown.

Brownian Movement.—This movement is probably caused by the impact of the molecules of the suspending medium and for this reason is sometimes called molecular movement. It is not characteristic of bacteria, or indeed of life, but is shared by all small microscopical objects when suspended in a fluid medium. Most beautiful examples of brownian movement can be seen by suspending granules of India ink or carmine and examining them under the microscope. This

brownian movement is to be sharply differentiated from *vital movement* which is possessed by some bacteria.

VITAL MOVEMENT.—As already indicated, bacteria have the power of independent movement due to inherent vital power. Only a few of the micrococci are motile, while many of the bacilli and spirilla are. This movement is a change of position and is caused by certain protoplasmic processes which these bacteria possess, known as *cilia* (sing. *cilium*) or *flagella* (sing. *fagellum*). The fact of motility or non-motility of an organism is of considerable value to the systematist. It is determined by examination in a *hanging drop*. At times, however, it varies so little from the brownian movement that it is difficult to tell whether a particular organism or culture does or does not possess vital movement. An opinion can be more definitely formed at times if some chemical producing an anæsthetizing effect on the bacteria is introduced into the examining medium. In case the organism is actually motile its position will be changed or at least in case it is merely a brownian movement there will be no change.

ORGANS OF LOCOMOTION.—The protoplasmic threads referred to as the organs of locomotion are known as flagella, or cilia. The difference between the cilium and flagellum is the fact that a cilium has a simple curve while a flagellum has a compound curve, like a whip lash. Most of the bacteria possess flagella rather than cilia. The size, arrangement, etc., of these flagella are constant and characteristic of a particular organism. Their structure and arrangement, therefore, will be discussed later.

CHARACTER OF MOVEMENT.—Different bacteria present different kinds of movement. Some dart forward with great rapidity, others move slowly; some move in straight lines, others wobble, but any particular character is quite constant and many of the bacteria may be recognized by their characteristic movements.

RATE.—The rate at which the bacteria travel when they possess vital movement varies greatly. Some of them move very fast, others very slowly. Many of them appear to move with wonderful rapidity. Leeuwenhoek, when he first saw these moving bacteria, said that they traveled with such great rapidity that they tore through one another, but it must be borne in mind that under the high powers of the microscope the rate of movement is magnified to the same extent as the object, and that in reality the rate of movement is not excessive. When compared to their size, the rate of movement is probably little greater than that of a

trotting horse and considerably less than that of a speeding automobile or a railroad train.

Reproduction.

Reproduction among the bacteria is largely asexual and takes place ordinarily by what is known as binary fission. In addition to this a num-

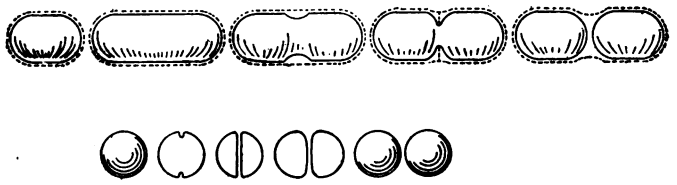


Fig. 20.—The division of bacterial cells (diagrammatic). (*After Novy.*)

ber of bacteria go into a resting stage, or produce spores. The spore formation is not, however, a method of multiplication, because usually only a single spore is formed in a cell, but serves to tide the organism through unfavorable conditions.

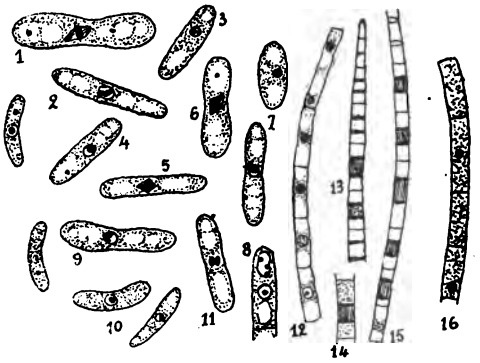


Fig. 21.—1–11, *Bacterium gammari*, resting nuclei, and in various stages of mitosis. 12–16, a filamentous bacterium in the digestive tract of *Bryodrilus*. 13–14 and 15, extremities of the filaments with nuclei. 16, old filaments, two cells are without nuclei. (*After Vejdovsky from Guilliermond review, Bull. Inst. Past.*)

Vegetative Multiplication.—This is accomplished by means of binary fission (Fig. 20). When a bacterium has reached maturity, fission begins. This change in the cell is not customarily regarded as preceded by any series of changes comparable to karyokinesis (mitosis)

in the higher cells, since no nucleus in the ordinary sense has been demonstrated in the bacterial cell. The work of Bütschli. Swellengrebel, and Schaudinn, however, indicates the existence of karyokinetic division in bacteria (Fig. 21). Division begins by an invagination of the protoplasm in the middle of the cell, which proceeds until

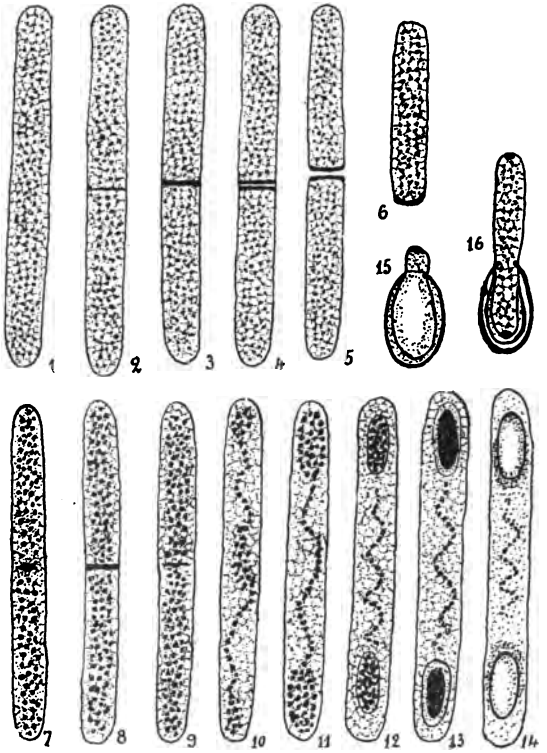


FIG. 22.—*Bacillus bütschlii.* 1–6, Stages in the division of the vegetative cell; 7–9, rudimentary sexuality; 1–14, formation of spores; 15–16, germination of spores (*After Schaudinn from Guilliermond review, Bull. Inst. Past.*)

the cell protoplasm is completely separated. The cell wall then grows in and finally splits forming the two ends of the new cells. These new cell walls are formed at right angles with the long axis of the cell in the case of the bacilli and spirilla, except in rarest instances. In the case of micrococci, the throwing of the cell wall across one diameter is

quite as economical as any other and may therefore proceed in any direction. Migula makes a considerable point of the fact that bacilli and spirilla elongate before division and micrococci divide before they elongate, and this would be the criterion which he would use to separate these two-form types. A generation among the bacteria is from one division of the cell to another. This is sometimes very short, in fact, only twenty to thirty minutes. Many of the bacteria after half-an-hour's time have grown from newly formed cells to maturity and are ready to divide again. This makes it possible for bacteria to multiply with very great rapidity, and if we know the length of the generation in a particular bacterium it would be easy enough to estimate the rate of multiplication, at least theoretically. It would be only a matter of geometrical progression. It is of course quite impossible for the bacteria to maintain their theoretical rate of growth for any length of time, but, practically, they grow with enormous rapidity, as is shown in cultures and the changes which they bring about in nature, such as the production of fermentation and the generation of toxin.

SPORE FORMATION.—A considerable number of bacteria form spores within the cell. Because they are formed within the cell they are spoken of as *endospores*. Endospores are formed by the bacilli and the spirilla, but not by the micrococci. Their chief value to the cell is their ability to resist unusual conditions, and to enable the individuals of a species to pass through unfavorable conditions which to the ordinary vegetative form of the cell would prove disastrous. At the maturity of the cell, spore formation may begin. It is an open question whether spore formation occurs as a regular stage in the life history of an organism, or is produced only under the stimulus of unfavorable environmental conditions. Both theories have their advocates. The first evidence of spore formation in the cell is a granulation of the protoplasm of the cell. As spore formation proceeds the granules become larger and collect at one portion of the cell. These granules then fuse to form the spore, which soon surrounds itself with a spore wall. At times the spore is smaller than the mother cell and is formed without changing the shape of the cell. At other times it is larger than the mother cell and causes a bulging of the latter. The position of the spore in the cell varies (Fig. 24). In some species it is *equatorial*, in others it is *polar*, and in still others it has an *intermediate* position between the equatorial and polar. When the spore is larger than the mother cell and is situated equatorially it causes the cell

to bulge with the formation of a barrel-shaped organism, or a *clostridium*. If the spore is situated at the poles and is larger than the mother cell, a *capitate* or *drum-stick* bacillus is produced. When the spore is smaller than the mother cell and the cells form in chains, there is frequently a tendency for the spore to be formed in opposite ends of contiguous cells of the chain so that they appear in pairs. The reason for this is not understood.

The endospores possess remarkable powers of resistance due to the concentrated character of the protoplasm, or to the character of the spore wall. The resistance here may be due to the structure of the wall itself or to the chemical substances which it contains. It is readily con-

FIG. 23.—The formation of spores. (*After Fischer from Frost and McCampbell.*)

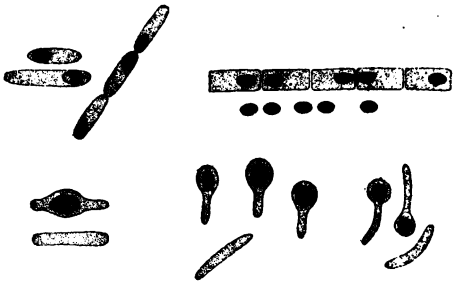


FIG. 24.—Spores and their location in bacterial cells. (*After Frost and McCampbell.*)

ceivable that the presence of certain fatty acids, or higher alcohols, might give the spore its remarkable resistance. These spores are very resistant to desiccation; they have been preserved in a dried condition for many years. They are also very resistant to the action of heat; some forms are known to withstand a temperature of boiling water for as long a time even as sixteen hours. They are resistant also to chemicals and the action of sunlight. Although in some cases, as pointed out by Marshall Ward, the very chemical substances which furnish them the powers of resistance towards environmental factors may be broken up under the influence of sunlight, forming poisons so that the spore is killed more readily than the cell would be.

When these spores are brought under favorable conditions of moisture, temperature, and food supply, they germinate. There are several types of germination (Fig. 25). In some cases the spore wall ruptures at the

pole and the young cell emerges so that its long axis is in the same direction as the long axis of the spore. In another type the spore ruptures equatorially and the young cell emerges with its long axis at right angles to the long axis of the spore. In still other types the spore swells and the young cell absorbs the wall of the spore.

In the lower or true bacteria only a single spore is formed in a cell. In the case of the higher bacteria, however, a number of spores may be formed at the distal end of the filament. These are spoken of as *gonidia*, and possess properties similar to those of the endospores.

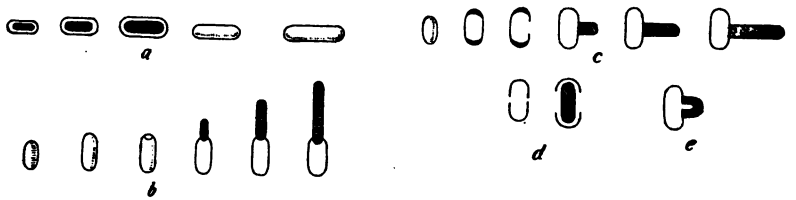


FIG. 25.—*Spore germination.* *a*, direct conversion of a spore into a bacillus without the shedding of a spore-wall (*B. leptosporus*); *b*, polar germination of *Bact. anthracis; c*, equatorial germination of *B. subtilis; d*, same of *B. megaterium; e*, same with "horse-shoe" presentation. (*After Novy.*)

In some cultures of bacteria, as for example in the micrococci, certain cells seem to be larger and different from the other cells. In a streptococcus filament, certain cells suggest to the observer the *joint spores* of the algæ and have therefore been spoken of as *arthrospores* or *joint spores*. There is, however, no evidence of an experimental nature, which warrants the belief that these cells are in reality spores, and it must be said that at the present time the presence of arthrospores among the bacteria is purely hypothetical.

CELL GROUPING.

Bacteria rarely occur singly but usually in groups. These cell aggregates are frequently very constant and quite characteristic of the organism possessing them. They are of sufficient definiteness and constancy to be used by the systematists in chacterizing large groups.

CELL AGGREGATES AMONG THE MICROCOCCI.—The grouping of micrococci depends upon the plane of division and also upon the cohesion of the cells. Since it is quite as economical for the micrococcus to

divide in one direction as another, it is possible for a number of different cell groupings to occur. Whatever the direction of the dividing walls, it is usually quite constant; if a particular species of micrococci has its planes of division parallel, there will be formed chains of micrococci. In some cases the cohesion is slight and only two cells remain attached to each other, forming what are ordinarily known as *diplococci*. There is a considerable number of very well known bacteria that are diplococci (Fig. 26). If the cohesion is stronger, we have chains of micrococci or rosaries formed which are known as *streptococci*. Well known and very important bacteria are grouped in this way. In other micrococci the cell wall is not formed continuously in parallel planes but in

FIG. 26.—Division forms of micrococci. *a*, *diplococcus*, perfect form with flattened opposed surface (*gonococcus*), lanceolate form (*pneumococcus*); *b*, *streptococcus*; *c*, consecutive fission yielding a *tetrad*; *d*, *sarcina* form resulting from division of tetrad *c*; *e*, *staphylococcus*. (*After Novy.*)

planes which alternate at right angles to each other. In this way cell aggregates occupying two dimensions of space are formed. These are known as *tetracocci*, or *merismopedia*. Still again, the planes of division may proceed at right angles to each other in three dimensions of space. In this case packets are formed which are known as *packet cocci*, or *sarcinæ*. Another group of the micrococci occurs, known as the *staphylococci*, so called because they are arranged in irregular bunches, like a bunch of grapes. This arrangement may be due to the fact that these micrococci divide in many different planes, or because during the course of their growth their arrangement is changed.

CELL AGGREGATES AMONG THE BACILLI.—In the case of the bacilli, one diameter is usually considerably shorter than the other, so that nature almost invariably throws the new cell wall across the bacilli at right angles to their long axis (Fig. 27). There is, therefore, only one arrangement or cell grouping possible, and that is end to end, so that *streptobacilli* are formed. When arranged in pairs, the designation is *diplobacilli*. The length of the chains appears to depend not only upon the cohesion of the bacilli but also upon the shape of the end; those which have square

ends frequently have very long chains, while those with rounded ends have short chains or occur singly. The same kind of arrangement is maintained among the spirilla.

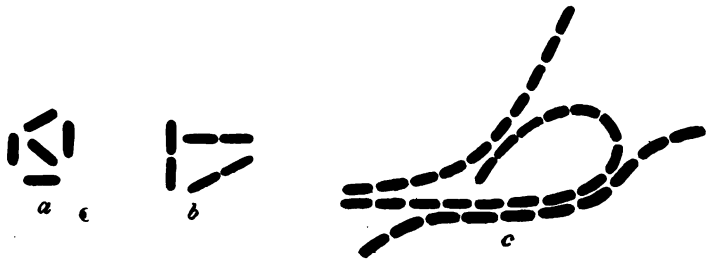


FIG. 27.—Division forms of bacilli. *a*, single; *b*, pairs; *c*, in threads. (*After Novy.*)

ZOOGLŒA.—Some of the bacteria secrete a mucilaginous substance which causes the cohesion of the cells frequently in considerable number. This aggregate of cells may assume some characteristic appearance and a great many attempts have been made by systematists to make use of this

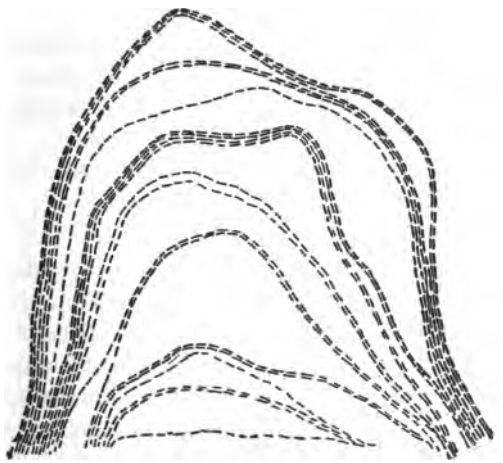


FIG. 28.—Threads of *Bact. anthracis*. (*After Migula.*)

in the different cases of fission. These zoogloeic masses usually assume the forms of pellicles, but their value as diagnostic features is not great. The formation of zoogloea is very frequently only a stage in the life history of an organism.

Minute Structure of the Bacterial Cell.

The typical cell, such as that of a higher plant or animal, is made up of cytoplasm surrounded by a cell wall. The cytoplasm contains a nucleus. There are also frequently present other evidences of structure in the cytoplasm, such as nucleolus, polar bodies, etc. In addition to these there may be appendages, such as the cilia or flagella. In the case of these bacterial cell, we find most of these structures present, such as cell wall, cytoplasm, and appendages, but the nucleus is either wanting or is so modified in form as not to be recognized as an ordinary nucleus.

Bacterial Cell Wall.—*Structure.*—All the bacteria have cell walls and it is these that give rigidity to the cell. These walls are rigid and elastic and are probably made up of two layers, the outer one is able to deliquesce and form capsules, or perhaps zoogloœa. The inner part retains the elasticity and gives the form to the bacteria. These cell walls are readily permeable to water and it is through them that all of the nourishment of the cell is obtained; that is, there are no openings for the entrance of food or the discharge of by-products, but the intake and output goes on through the cell wall which is entire. The chemical nature of the cell wall is generally protein in nature and in this respect resembles the animal cell wall more closely than it does the plant cell wall, though a number of the bacteria do have cellulose in their walls. These cell walls take the ordinary stains with difficulty, or not at all, and it is because they do not stain that they are not seen. The ghost figures are frequently seen which are the walls of dead mother cells from which spores have escaped.

Capsules.—A considerable number of the bacteria regularly, or under certain conditions, form what are known as capsules (Fig. 29). These are mucilaginous envelopes which in width frequently exceed that of the organism itself. In microscopical preparations of bacteria it is important to differentiate these from artifacts, since by ordinary staining methods the capsules are not colored but appear as colorless areas surrounding the bacteria. If, due to shrinkage of the bacteria, or other material on the preparation, clear spaces are formed, it is readily seen that these might be confused with the real capsule. It is possible to stain the capsules by special methods; these must be used in order to determine positively the existence of the capsules. The material of which the capsules are composed is derived from the cell itself, probably the result of the deliquescence of the outer

portion of the cell wall. This material is mucin-like and is soluble in water. The bacteria which grow in the bodies of animals frequently contain these capsules but fail to show them when grown upon artificial culture media. It is difficult, therefore, to determine whether or not an organism has a capsule by mere examination of cultures. Some culture media, however, do cause a formation of capsules in the case of capsulated bacteria. These are blood serum, sometimes, and milk, usually. Beautiful capsules can be obtained by growing such bacteria as the *Bact. pneumoniæ*, *Bact. capsulatum*, and *Bact. welchii* in milk cultures. *Strept.*

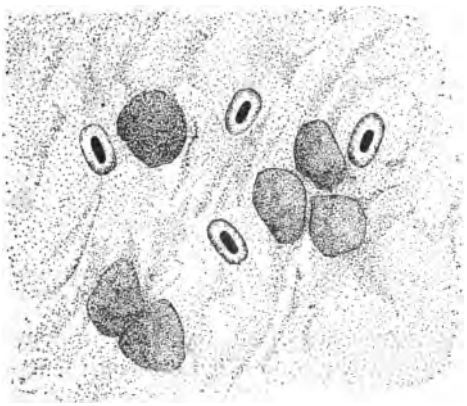


FIG. 29.—Capsules. *Bact. pneumoniæ* (Friedlander). (*After Weichselbaum from Frost and McCampbell.*)

mesenteroides is a bacterium which grows in the syrup of the sugar refineries and forms abundant capsules. This organism changes the character of the syrup, and its entrance and growth is frequently the cause of serious loss.

Sheath.—Among the higher bacteria, such as *Crenothrix*, there is present a thickened and hardened membrane which is spoken of as a sheath. It forms a tube in which the different cells of the plant are contained. This sheath is homologous to the capsule and in it are frequently deposited certain by-products of the cell. In *Crenothrix* we frequently have iron oxides (p. 55).

BACTERIAL CYTOPLASMS.—The cytoplasm of the bacterial cell is similar to the cytoplasm of other cells except that chemical analyses seem to show that it contains a higher percentage of nitrogen. As viewed under

the microscope, in either an unstained or stained condition, it appears as a homogeneous mass filling the entire cell and rarely showing any evidence of structure. Ordinary stains, such as are used in animal and plant histology, fail to reveal the presence of the ordinary nucleus, the whole cell being usually uniformly stained with those stains ordinarily characterized as nuclear stains. When these stains are applied to some bacteria, particularly at certain stages of their growth, certain parts stain more readily than others, and we get either what is known as a bi-polar stain or polar granules. In the first case, the ends of bacilli are stained more deeply than the center so that the cells appear very much as diplococci. This bi-polar stain is characteristic of such organisms as the bacterium of chicken cholera or the bacterium of bubonic plague. The polar granules are frequently seen in the diphtheria bacterium and may be located at the poles and also

FIG. 30.—Plasmolytic changes. (*After A. Fischer.*) *a*, cholera vibrio; *b*, typhoid bacillus; *c*, *Spirillum undula*. (*From Novy.*)

at the center. In this germ and in some others it is possible, by special staining, to give the granules a different color from the rest of the organism. In this case these bodies are spoken of as *metachromatic granules*. Whether or not the bi-polar stains or the polar granules are evidences of structure or not is an open question, since the results obtained might be explained upon the theory that the cells are plasmolyzed (Fig. 30). As a result of plasmolysis the protoplasm of the cell is drawn away from the cell wall and concentrated in areas which would very well explain the appearances. And it seems likely also that the methods employed in staining might lead to plasmolysis, but the metachromatic granules can hardly be explained upon this supposition. They must be either special protoplasmic structures or reserve food material, and for each of these theories there are able supporters.

The cytoplasm of the bacterial cell is slightly refractive. It is colorless except in a few cases in which the green coloring matter, like chlorophyl, is present, as, for instance, *Bact. viride* and *Bact. chlorinum*. In the purple sulphur bacteria, the coloring matter bacteriopurpurin is present. The bacterial cytoplasm contains vacuoles at times.

Nucleus.—The question of whether or not the bacteria possess a nucleus is one that has engaged the attention of bacteriologists and biologists for some time. It is very certain that the bacteria do not possess a nucleus in the ordinary sense in which the term is used in animal and plant histology. There are several different views in regard to this matter. One is that the bacterial cell is largely nucleus, and attention has already been called to the fact that cytoplasm stains with what are known as nuclear stains. But this is not convincing proof that the material of the bac-

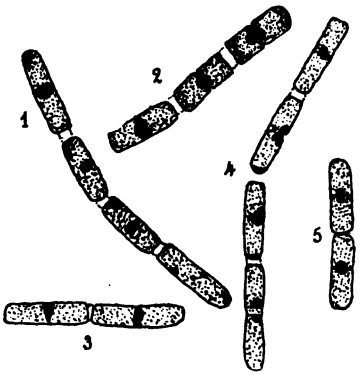


FIG. 31.—1 and 2, *Bacillus mycoides;* 3, *B. megatherium;* 4, *B. radicosus;* 5, *B. oxalaticus.* (*After Bohuslaw Rayman and Karel Kruis from Guilliermond review, Bull. Inst. Past.*)

terial cell is nucleus. Were this true, however, it would fit in very nicely with the theory of evolution, since evolutionists are desirous of finding a group of organisms with the cell reduced to its simplest form. Another idea is that the nuclear material is widely distributed throughout the bacterial cell and not concentrated into one structure (Fig. 31). Such a view as this is in harmony with Bütschli's work. Zettnow appears to have stained nuclei. Another class of thinkers, in which Alfred Fischer is prominent, believe that the bacterial cell is without a nucleus. This is borne out, to their minds, by the findings that the bacterial cell plasmolyzes, that the nucleus of higher animals and plants does not; therefore the bacterial cytoplasm is not nuclear.

FLAGELLA.—The flagella are protoplasmic threads and, undoubtedly,

are attached to the cytoplasm of the cell. Whether these flagella pass through openings in the cell wall or are attached in some way exteriorly

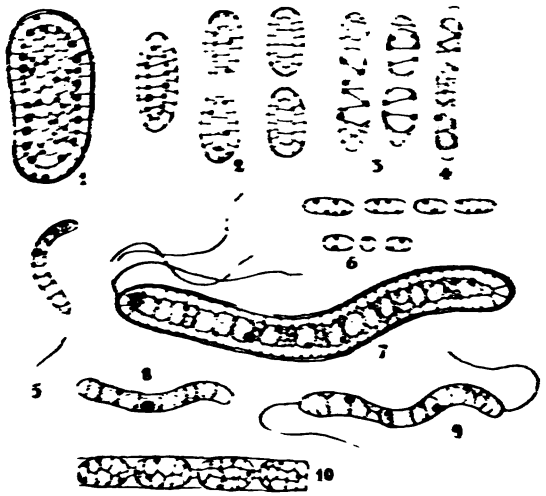


FIG. 32.—1, *Chromatium okenii*; 2, *Bacterium lineola*; 3, 4 and 5, sulpho-bacteria; 7, *Spirillum jenensis*; 8 and 9, *spirillum undula*; 10, *Cladothrix dichotoma*. (*After Butschli from Guilermond review. Bull. Inst. Past.*)

FIG. 33.—*Microspira comma*. Monotrichous bacteria. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

FIG. 34.—*Pseudomonas pyocyanea*. Monotrichous bacteria. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

is a question that cannot be answered definitely. But in either case these flagella possess the property of cytoplasm, *i.e.*, that of irritability, and are not to be considered as analogous to mere levers or oars to

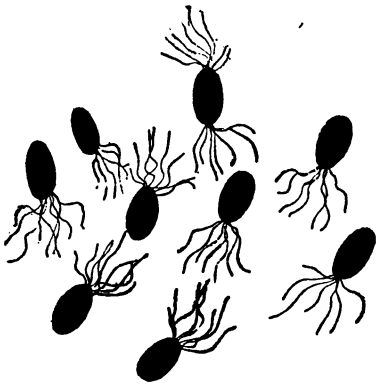


FIG. 35.—*Pseudomonas syncyanea.* Lophotrichous bacteria. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

FIG. 36.—*Spirillum rubrum.* Lophotrichous bacteria. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

FIG. 37.—*Bacillus typhosus.* Peritrichous bacteria. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss, and Frost and McCampbell.*)

a boat. They are very narrow threads, no one knows how narrow since they cannot be seen without staining and they can only be stained by precipitating some chemical which may add considerably to their width. They are frequently longer than the organism which possesses them and sometimes many times that length. *B. symptomtici anthracis* found in the soil has a flagellum sixty times its own length. The arrangement of the flagella on the bacteria is quite constant and is used by some authors to differentiate genera. Very few of the micrococci are provided with flagella, as was indicated above, and in the bacilli and spirilla they may be arranged at the poles singly or in brushes, or they may be arranged on the entire periphery of the cells. When bacteria are provided with a single flagellum at one pole, the arrangement is said to be *monotrichous* (Figs. 33 and 34). When they are arranged in brushes, the arrangement is spoken of as *lophotrichous* (Figs. 35 and 36) and when they are arranged on the entire periphery, the arrangement is said to be *peritrichous* (Fig. 37). It frequently happens that in the case of the monotrichous and lophotrichous the flagella occur at both ends of the organism. This is explained by the fact that the organism is just undergoing binary fission and that the second group is on the newly forming cell. It is worth while in this connection to call attention to the fact that the flagella on one end are new, while those on the other end may be thousands of generations old.

The Higher Bacteria.

The higher or *trichobacteria* are filamentous forms. The filaments sometimes show true branching and frequently false branching. The cells are similar in form throughout the filament and are capable of independent existence, but when growing in the filament give evidence of differentiation. Sometimes these filaments are attached to the substratum; in other cases they are free. In the case of the sessile forms, the cells at the attached end are smaller than those at the free end. In other forms the ends may become swollen or club-shaped. Frequently there is a difference between the cells of the different parts of the filaments indicated by the manner of reproduction. Certain cells are apparently set apart for the purpose of reproduction, and, by a process of division, form spores, or gonidia. Some of the free forms of the *trichobacteria* move by undulative movements of the protoplasm. The exact nature of this movement

is not understood. Many of the *trichobacteria* are surrounded by a membrane homologous to the capsule in the lower bacteria and known as a sheath.

The best-known member of this group is the water-pest bacterium (*Crenothrix polyspora*), (Fig. 38) an iron bacterium, which has the power of oxidizing certain forms of iron, causing a deposit to accumulate in the water pipes of cities where it may cause considerable trouble. It is prob-

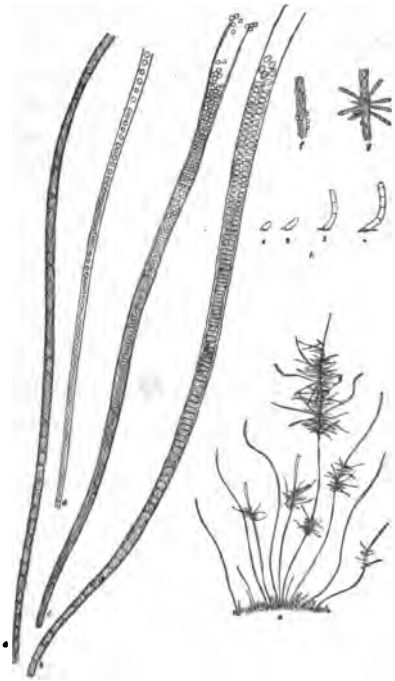


FIG. 38.—*Crenothrix polyspora* Cohn, Brunnenfaden. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

able also that this bacterium has had a very important part in the deposition of our iron ores, such as those found on the Mesaba range. Another member is the *Actinomyces bovis* (Fig. 98) which is the cause of the common disease in cattle known as lumpy jaw. This bacterium may also infect man. Many other forms of haplobacteria are found in nature and probably play important parts in the chemical transformation of matter.

CLASSIFICATION.

The classification of bacteria was early recognized by Mueller as a matter of difficulty, since he says: "The difficulties that beset the investigation of these microscopic animals are complex; the sure and definite determination (of species) requires so much time, so much of acumen of eye and judgment, so much of perseverance and patience, that there is hardly anything else so difficult." Early investigators found it difficult to decide whether bacteria are plants or animals, and nowadays we are finding it as difficult to decide upon a system of classification. A great many systems have been proposed, but many of them are untenable because those who proposed them were ignorant of or unconcerned by the rules adopted by systematists in other lines. The only system that seems worthy of continued life is that of Migula, who is a trained botanist. This system, with slight modifications, is given below. In this system, the characters which separate the genera are morphological; while physiological characters, including cultural, are used for the differentiation of species and smaller groups. One of the rules adopted by systematists in other lines is the binomial rule. In the violation of this rule, bacteriologists have been great sinners, and some of the names proposed by Migula and others following his system are quite different from those by which well-known forms have been christened by their discoverers.

CLASSIFICATION OF MIGULA (MODIFIED).

The bacteria are phycochrome-free schizomycetous plants which divide in one, two, or three planes. Reproduction takes place by vegetative multiplication (fission). Resting stages in the form of endospores are produced by many species. Motility is noted in some genera, and this is due to flagella. In Beggiatoa and Spirochæta the organs of locomotion are not definitely known.

I. **Order:** Eubacteria (true bacteria).

The cells are devoid of any nucleus (Zentralkörper) and free from sulphur and bacteriopurpurin, colorless or faintly colored.

I. **Suborder:** Haplobacterinæ (lower bacteria).

I. **Family:** Coccaceæ (ZOPF) MIG.

The cells are globular when in a free state, but in the various stages of division appear somewhat elliptical. A few species in this family are motile. Cell division takes place in all directions of space. Frequently the cells remain attached together, and under these conditions usually show some flattening of the cell at the point of junction with the cell next to it.

Genus: Streptococcus BILLROTH.

The cells are globular and do not possess any organs of locomotion. Cell division

takes place in only one plane. Usually the cells remain united together after division, producing chains or diplococcus forms. No endospores have been noted.

Genus: Micrococcus (HALLIER) COHN.

The cells are globular and do not possess any organs of locomotion. Cell division takes place in two planes at right angles. If the cells remain attached together after cell division, merismopedia plates are formed. The plates give the appearance of a regular flat mass of cells. No endospores have been noted in this genus.

Genus: Sarcina GOODSIR.

The cells are globular and do not possess any organs of locomotion. Cell division takes place in three planes, all perpendicular to each other. Its cells remain attached after division; cube-like packets are formed. The composition of the media sometimes prevents this typical cube formation.

Genus: Planococcus MIGULA.

The cells are globular. Cell division takes place in two planes at right angles similar to genus Micrococcus. The cells of this genus are motile, possessing one or two long flagella. No endospores are produced in this genus.

Genus: Planosarcina MIGULA.

The cells are globular. Cell division takes place in three planes as in Sarcina. Cells are motile, having only one flagellum on each. Cells usually remain united in twos and in tetrads and seldom form packets as Sarcina.

II. **Family:** Bacteriaceæ MIGULA.

The cells are cylindrical in shape. They vary in length from short almost spherical bodies to very long rods. Cell division takes place in one direction in a plane perpendicular to the long axis of the cell. Some of the members of this family remain attached together, forming threads, while others separate from each other soon after fission.

Genus: Bacterium EHRENBERG.

The cells are cylindrical, of longer or shorter length. Threads are frequently formed. The cells do not possess any organs of locomotion. Endospores are produced in some few species, but in the majority no such formation occurs. It is possible that endospore formation occurs only under certain environmental conditions.

Genus: Bacillus COHN.

The cells are cylindrical, of longer or shorter length. The rods are sometimes oval in shape. Cells are motile and possess flagella which are distributed over the entire surface. Endospore formation occurs with marked regularity. The bacteria in this genus are motile only during certain periods of their life. This period varies greatly in length and occurs only in the vegetative stage.

Genus: Pseudomonas MIGULA.

The cells are cylindrical, of longer or shorter length. The cells are motile and possess polar flagella. These flagella may vary from one to twelve in number. The formation of endospores in this species is claimed by some. If they occur, it is extremely rare. Occasionally certain species in this genus form themselves into threads or chains.

III. **Family:** Spirillaceæ MIGULA.

The cells are wound in the form of a spiral or representing the portion of a turn of a spiral. In the latter case, if the cells remain attached together in the form of a

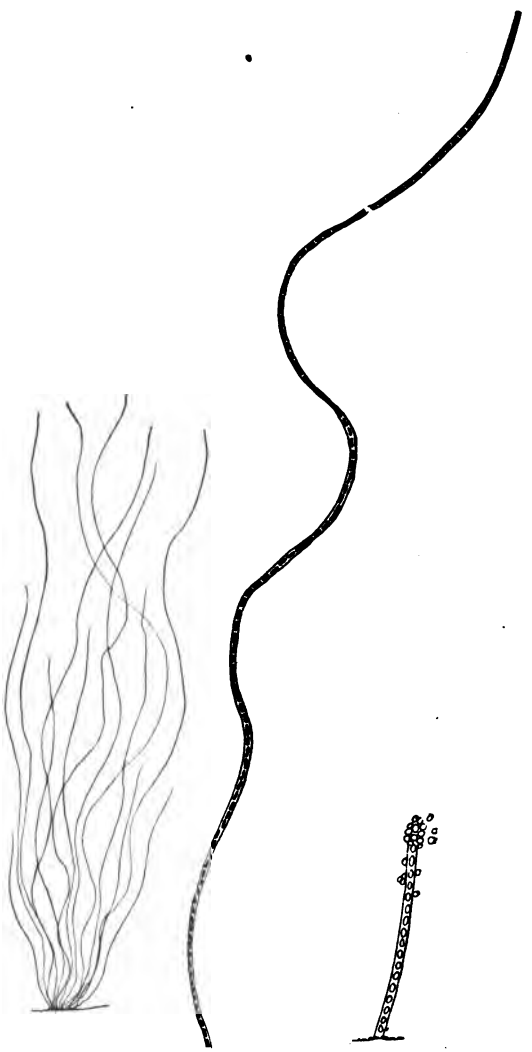


FIG. 39.—*Chlamydothrix hyalina* Migula. (*After Migula from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

thread, a full spiral of several turns is produced. Cell division takes place in only one direction of space, and this is transverse to the long axis of the cell.

Genus: Spirosoma MIGULA.

The cells are rigid and bent in the form of spirals. The members of this genus are as a general rule quite large. The cells may be free or united together into small gelatinous masses. Some of the cells individually are surrounded by a gelatinous envelopes, while others are free.

Genus: Microspira SCHRÖTER.

The cells are rigid, short, and bent similar to a comma. When the cells are united together, S-shaped threads are formed. The cells are motile, possessing usually one flagellum and rarely two or three flagella. These flagella are about the same length as the cell. No endospores are formed. Some writers make no distinction between Microspira and Spirillum. The name *Vibrio* has also been applied by some writers to this genus.

Genus: Spirillum EHRENBERG.

The cells are rigid, usually long and forming long, screw-like threads, or, in some cases, only portions of a spiral turn. Cells are motile and possess a tuft of flagella at the pole. The flagella may occur at both ends of the spiral, and they vary greatly in number. Endospore formation has been observed in some species.

Genus: Spirochæta EHRENBERG.

The cells are flexible spirals, very thin and long. No flagella are present. These bacteria move by rotation similar to a screw, and also by lateral motion similar to a snake. The locomotive organs, if present, are not known. No endospores are produced.

II. **Suborder:** Trichobacterinæ (higher bacteria).

Family: Chlamydobacteriaceæ MIGULA.

The cells are cylindrical, are united in threads, and surrounded by a sheath. Reproduction takes place by means of motile and non-motile gonidia. These gonidia arise directly from the vegetative cells and, without any resting stage, produce new threads of cells.

Genus: Chlamydothrix MIGULA.

The cells are cylindrical, non-motile, and arranged in unbranched threads and surrounded by a sheath of varying thickness in different species, being the same diameter at apex and base (Fig. 39). Reproduction takes place by means of gonidia, which are round and arise directly from the vegetative cell. This genus is called Leptothrix by KÜTZING and Streptothrix by COHN.

Genus: Crenothrix COHN.

The cells are united together into filaments which are unbranched. The filaments gradually enlarge toward the free end, thus making a distinction between the apex and base. The sheath which covers the filaments is thick and often becomes infiltrated with the hydroxide of iron after being cast off in water in which there is a large amount of iron. Reproduction takes place by the formation of round gonidia which are formed in the beginning by division perpendicular to the long axis of the cell and later by division in three directions of space. Only one or possibly two species can be placed in this genus.

Genus: Phragmidiothrix ENGLER.

The cells in the beginning form unbranched threads. Cell division takes place in three directions of space, thus forming within the sheath a mass of cells. Later these cells may burst through, multiply, and form branches after acquiring sheaths. The sheath in this genus is quite thin and can scarcely be seen.

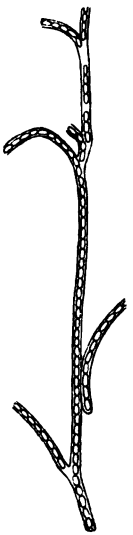


FIG. 40.—*Cladothrix dichotoma* Cohn. (*After Fischer from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

Genus: Sphærotilus KÜTZING, 1833, (Cladothrix COHN).

The cells are cylindrical and the threads are surrounded by sheaths. Dichotomous branching is present, and there is no differentiation in size between the apex and base of the thread (Fig. 40). Reproduction takes place by means of gonidia which swarm together within the cell. These gonidia burst out of the cells, attach themselves to some object, and grow into new threads. The gonidia are endowed with flagella which are attached toward the end and below the pole.

II. **Order:** Thiobacteria (sulphur bacteria).

The cells do not possess any nucleus and contain sulphur. The cells are colorless or pigmented rose, violet, or red by bacteriopurpurin. The cells are never pigmented green.

I. **Family:** Beggiatoaceæ TREVISAN.

Filamentous bacteria which do not contain bacteriopurpurin. The cells contain sulphur granules. Reproduction takes place in one direction of space.

Genus: Thiothrix WINOGRADSKY.

The cells are non-motile and the threads are attached to some object. The threads are surrounded by a delicate sheath and the cells contain sulphur granules. Gonidia are produced at the end of the threads. These gonidia ear motile and finally attach themselves to some object, and, according to some authors, bend at right angles in the middle and grow into new threads.

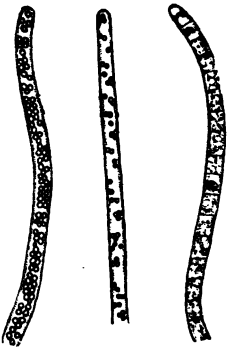


FIG. 41.—*Beggiatoa alba.* Vaucher, Trevisan. (*After Winogradsky from Schmidt and Weiss.*)

Genus: Beggiatoa TREVISAN.

The threads are not surrounded by a sheath and are formed of flat cells. The cells are not attached (Fig. 41). This genus moves by means of an undulating membrane similar to Oscillaria. As the organism moves, it rotates on its long axis and swings its free ends. Gonidia are unknown and reproduction takes place by a division and separation of the threads.

II. **Family:** Rhodobacteriaceæ (WINOGRADSKY'S classification, artificial).

The cells contain bacteriopurpurin and on this account may be red, rose, or violet. Sulphur granules may also be included within the cells.

I. **Subfamily.**

The cells are united into colonies. Cell division takes place in three directions of space.

Genus: Thiocystis WINOGRADSKY.

The colonies are small, compact, and enveloped either singly or in groups by a gelatinous cyst. The colonies are also capable of breaking up and the cells moving about.

Genus: Thiocapsa WINOGRADSKY.

The cells are globular in shape and spread out on a substratum in flat colonies. These colonies are surrounded by a common gelatinous secretion similar to a capsule. The cells are non-motile.

Genus: Thiosarcina WINOGRADSKY.

The colonies form packets similar to the genus Sarcina of the *Eubacteria*. The cells are non-motile.

II. **Subfamily** Lamprocystaceæ.

The cells are formed into families. Cell division takes place first in three then in two directions of space.

Genus: Lamprocystis SCHRÖTER.

The cells in the beginning are solid, then hollow, becoming perforated like a net. They separate into small groups and become motile.

III. **Subfamily** Thiopediaceæ.

The cells are united into colonies. Cell division takes place in two directions of space.

Genus: Thiopedia WINOGRADSKY.

The families are formed similar to tubes and are composed of cells arranged in fours and capable of motility.

IV. **Subfamily** Amœbobacteriaceæ.

The cells are united into colonies. Cell division takes place in one direction of space.

Genus: Amœbobacter WINOGRADSKY.

The cells are united into colonies, and after division in one direction of space remain attached together by threads of protoplasm. The colonies possess amœboid motility. The cells change form by contraction and the spreading out of the protoplasm.

Genus: Thiothece WINOGRADSKY.

The colonies are inclosed by a thick, gelatinous cyst. The cells are capable of moving and are very loosely surrounded by a common gelatin.

Genus: Thiodictyon WINOGRADSKY.

The colonies are solid, non-motile, and consist of small cells which are pressed together.

V. **Subfamily** Chromatiaceæ.

The cells are free and capable at all times of motility.

Genus: Chromatium PERTY.

The cells are moderately thick, elliptical or cylindric-elliptical in shape.

Genus: Rhabdochromatium WINOGRADSKY.

The cells are free, rod-shaped, or spindle form; they possess flagella on the poles and are motile at all times.

Genus: Thiospirillum.

The cells are free, continually motile, and spirally twisted.

Relationship of Bacteria.

There has been a great deal of discussion as to whether bacteria are plants or animals. They were first described as animalcula and to the popular mind they are usually animals or "bugs." It is difficult to determine their exact relation philogenetically. These difficulties are so great that some scientists, as Haeckel, would create a new kingdom, call it *Protista*, and put in it some of the lower plants and animals which are difficult to classify, together with the bacteria. This view, however, is not a very popular one, and the attempt is usually made to trace the relationship of bacteria to well-known representatives of the plant and animal kingdoms. The bacteria are undoubtedly more closely related to the blue-green algæ than to any other forms of life. They resemble these organisms in form, method of reproduction, and absence of definite nucleus. It is quite impossible to decide, furthermore, whether some forms, such as *Bact. viride* and *Bact. chlorinum*, are blue-green algæ or bacteria. On the other hand, there are some points of resemblance between the bacteria and the protozoa. Spore formation, similar to that among the bacteria, occurs among some of the protozoa. Another point of resemblance is the possession of flagella. Some of the flagellates quite closely resemble the bacteria in many ways, and the spirochætæ, which are usually believed to be bacteria, have been classed as flagellates by eminent proto-zöologists.

Physiologically the bacteria are quite closely related to the fungi, and are frequently classed with them under the term *Schizomycetes*.

Artificial Cultivation of Bacteria.

The introduction of methods of artificial cultivation marks the beginning of the science of bacteriology. These methods were developed by Pasteur and Koch and are depended upon by the bacteriologist of to-day as the foundation for most of his work. It has been the aim of investigation to discover a more general culture medium. So far it has been impossible to do this, but beef broth, made after a formula suggested by Loeffler many years ago, forms the basis of nearly all of our culture media. This beef broth, or nutrient bouillon, is made by extracting meat free from fat in water, adding a small per cent of peptone,

correcting the chemical reaction, clarifying and sterilizing. To this broth various substances are added for special purposes; gelatin and agar, in order to solidify the media, and various sugars and other chemical substances for the purpose of determining the physiological characteristics of various bacteria. One of the difficulties with the present methods of the artificial cultivation of bacteria is the inconstancy of the composition of the media, due to the fact that the extract of beef, the peptone, and other ingredients, cannot be obtained chemically pure. If it should prove possible to use synthetic substances, such as the polypeptids, it would mark a great step in advance, but it is probably quite impossible to devise a single medium upon which all bacteria will grow. Some bacteria, such as those which produce nitrification, refuse to grow on ordinary media containing organic material. The cultivation of bacteria in pure culture is dependent upon isolation, and the method of isolation suggested by Robert Koch in 1880, and known as the plate culture method, has given eminent satisfaction. This method is dependent upon the use of a liquefiable solid medium, such as gelatin or agar.

CHAPTER IV.

INVISIBLE MICROÖRGANISMS*

The term "invisible microörganism" is used interchangeably with such expressions as "ultra-microscopic organism," "invisible virus" and "filterable virus" to designate a group of microörganisms which cannot be discerned with the most powerful lenses. Besides being invisible, these microörganisms will pass through the ordinary "bacteria-proof" filters and with one exception,† they have resisted all attempts at cultivation outside of the animal body.

The virus of foot-and-mouth disease may be taken as a typical example. In this disease vesicles form in the mouths and on the feet of infected cattle. The virus is known to be present in the lymph which forms in these vesicles because this lymph will produce typical attacks of foot-and-mouth disease when inoculated into susceptible animals. If now this infectious lymph be diluted with water and passed through a Berkefeld filter the resulting filtrate will be found to be free from all visible microörganisms and in addition the usual culture tests will give negative results. Notwithstanding this apparent sterility, however, the filtrate will produce disease in cattle in the same manner as the unfiltered lymph. It is known that the symptoms produced by the filtrate are caused by a living organism and not by a toxin, because by successive filtrations and inoculations the disease can be transmitted through a long series of animals, thus indicating clearly that there exists in the filtered lymph a living organism which is capable of reproduction. Another proof that the virulence of the filtered lymph is caused by the presence of living corpuscular elements, and that it is not a mere solution of a toxin, is found in the failure of the virus to pass through filters of finer grain than the Berkefeld as, for example, the Kitasato filter.

The more important of the diseases which may be caused by invisible microörganisms are yellow fever, infantile paralysis, hog cholera, bovine

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

†Bovine pleuro-pneumonia.

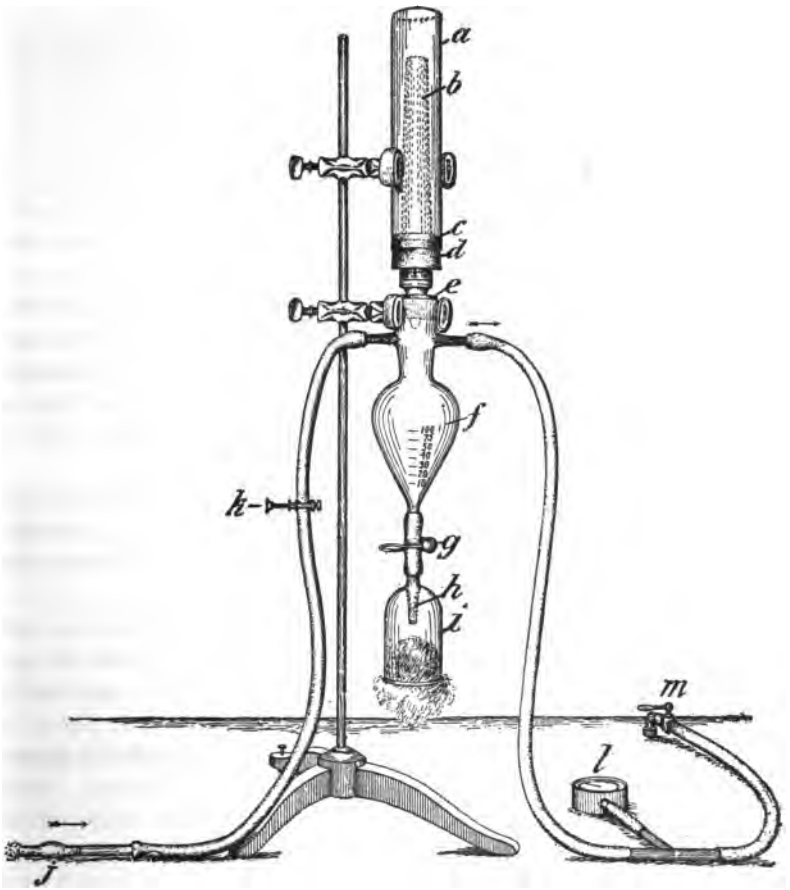


FIG. 42.—Apparatus for fractional filtration, designed for use with Pasteur-Chamberland or Berkefeld filters. *a*, glass mantle surrounding filter; *b*, Chamberland filter; *c*, paraffin joint; *d* and *e*, rubber stoppers; *f*, double side-arm suction flask; *g*, pinchcock controlling outlet from suction flask; *h*, outlet tube surrounded by glass shield and attached to lower end of suction flask by means of short rubber tubing; *i*, glass shield fused to and surrounding outlet tube as a protection against contamination when the filtrates are drawn off; *j*, glass inlet tube plugged with cotton, for admitting air into suction flask; *k*, pinchcock governing the admission of air into flask; *l*, vacuum gauge; *m*, stopcock connected with vacuum pump. (*U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Bureau of Animal Industry, Bul.* 113.)

pleuropneumonia, cattle plague, canine distemper, swamp fever or infectious anæmia of horses, chicken pest, sheep pox, and horse sickness.

The invisibility of this group of microörganisms may depend upon either their minute size or their peculiar structure. The most powerful microscopes will not enable us to discern with distinctness objects which are less than 0.1μ in diameter. We know of bacteria which in size approach this limit quite closely (*M. progrediens*, 0.15μ in diameter) and there is no reason for believing that the size of organisms is limited by our ability to see them. As already stated, invisibility may also result from a peculiarity of structure, such as complete transparency and failure to stain with the reagents ordinarily used for this purpose.

The ability of microörganisms to pass through filters is dependent upon a variety of factors. The size and plasticity of the organism, the fineness of the pores, and the thickness of the walls of the filter as well as the conditions under which the filtration is performed, will all influence the result.

The failure of the invisible microörganisms to develop under artificial conditions is to be attributed to their strict parasitism and to our inability to imitate exactly in the laboratory the conditions which exist in the animal body.

While the invisible microörganisms possess certain qualities in common, in some respects they differ widely from one another. Some will pass only through the coarsest of bacteria-proof filters, while others pass readily through the densest filters, thus indicating wide differences in size or in structure. Some are very susceptible to the action of germicidal agents, whereas others are more resistant than the ordinary bacteria. Some produce disease in only one species of animal, while others show little or no limitation in this respect. The diseases produced by these microörganisms likewise differ markedly, some being comparatively benign and local in character, whereas others appear as the most profound septicæmias. Some are extremely contagious, while others can be transferred from one animal to another only by means of an intermediate host. In fact these invisible microörganisms seem to differ among themselves quite as widely as do those which are visible to us.

The existence of an invisible microörganism is determined as follows:

The infectious agent must pass through a bacteria-proof filter, which is free from imperfections as shown by tests with visible organisms of small size. Pressure exceeding one atmosphere should not be employed

during filtration. The time of filtration should not exceed one hour. The filtrate should remain free from all visible bacteria as shown by microscopic examination and cultural tests. The filtrate should possess the specific disease-producing qualities of the unfiltered material. Animals infected with the filtrate should yield material which, after filtration, will in its turn possess the attributes of the original unfiltered material.

CHAPTER V.

PROTOZOA.*

[Limited to the Study of *Pathogenic* Forms].

Introduction.

Most of those diseases which are known to be due to an infecting agent are caused by bacteria; but some of them are caused by protozoa.

The bacteria belong to the vegetable kingdom. The protozoa are minute animals; they are extremely numerous, and they are very widely distributed throughout nature.

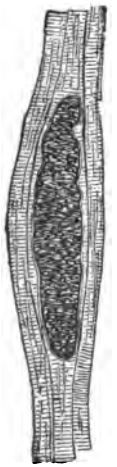


Fig. 43.—Miescher's sac from the musculature of a hog. ×30 diameters. (*After Ostertag.*)

From a zoölogical point of view, the protozoa constitute an important sub-kingdom. It is sometimes difficult to say whether one of these minute organisms is a plant or an animal. For this reason, the unicellular organisms are sometimes classified by themselves, as *Protista*, in a kingdom which belongs to neither the animal nor the vegetable kingdom; usually, however, the protozoa are placed in the animal kingdom and they are defined as organisms which have the following characteristics: "They are unicellular; they reproduce by various methods of division and, often, in addition, by conjugation; they may be solitary or united in colonies, free living or parasitic; with some exceptions, they do not possess chlorophyl."

Many protozoa live in fresh water. Others live in the sea; chalk is formed from the skeletons of myriads of protozoa which once lived in the ocean. When they died, their bones fell to the bottom and formed chalk. Most of the protozoa are free-living; but others are parasitic on animals and plants. Some of the parasitic protozoa are harmless and do no injury to the hosts which support them; others produce severe diseases. Before mentioning those which cause disease (see p. 667) it

* Prepared by J. L. Todd.

will be well to consider the protozoa as a class and to study the characters which all have in common.

Structure of the Protozoa.

Most protozoa are microscopical; some of them are visible to the naked eye as individuals, or as agglomerated masses of individuals. For example, the *Sarcosporidia*, which occur in the muscles of mice and other animals, can easily be seen without a microscope, and the huge plasmodial masses of *Amœbæ*, which are sometimes seen on rotting wood or in tan pits, may measure several centimeters in breadth.

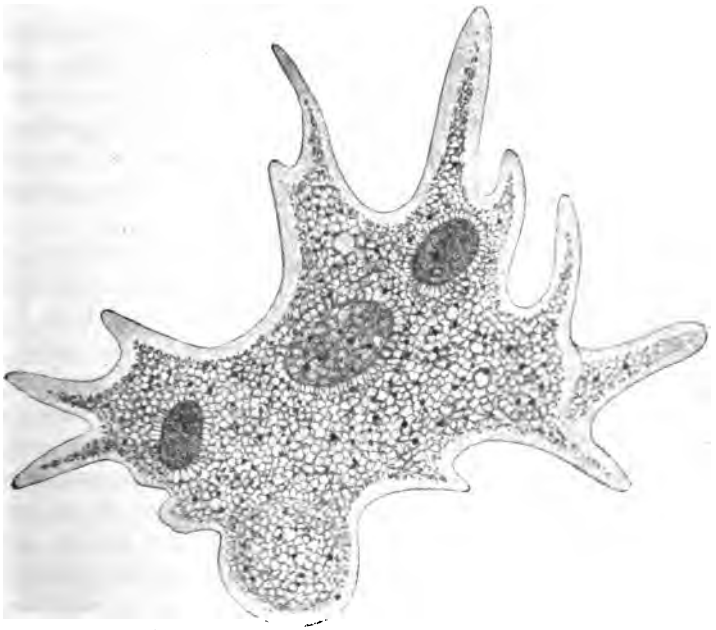


Fig. 44.—*Amœba vespertilio.* (*After Doflein.*)

Like all living things, the protozoa are composed of protoplasm. Protoplasm is a complicated and, more or less, fluid mixture of albuminous substances. A cell may be conceived of as a tiny drop of albuminous and somewhat viscid fluid, like the white of an egg. By appropriate methods, the protoplasm of a cell may be shown to have an alveolar or foam-like structure; because the protoplasm is a mixture of two fluids,

one viscid and the other more labile. In such a mixture, the viscid fluid forms tiny droplets, and each of them is surrounded by a layer of the less coherent fluid (Fig. 44). The arrangement of the alveoli of the foam-like cytoplasm of a living cell is the same as the arrangement of the bubbles in a mass of foam which is artificially produced. The walls of the outer layer of alveoli, or of alveoli which surround a resistant structure within the cell, are perpendicular to the surface against which they lie. The outline of the alveoli, which are not in contact with a firm structure, is circular; an exactly similar arrangement of the alveoli may be seen in a mass of soapsuds contained in a bottle; wherever the bubbles touch an unyielding surface, their outline becomes rectangular.

The protoplasm of a protozoön may be divided into two main divisions: the *cytoplasm* and the *nucleus*. The cytoplasm, as a whole, may be divided, more or less easily, into a clearer, denser, more resistant outer layer—the *ectoplasm;* and a more fluid, granular, internal portion—the *endoplasm*. Denser, more resistant fibers sometimes run through the cytoplasm and, like a skeleton, serve to fix the shape of the organism in which they exist.

The nucleus, in its simplest form, is simply an area which is differentiated from the remainder of the cell by being more refractile and by being colored more deeply in specimens which have been stained by dyes. It stains deeply because it contains a substance called *chromatin*. The chromatin usually occurs in granules; the granules may vary considerably in size and they are supported upon a *linin* framework. This framework does not stain by ordinary methods and it is probably continuous with, and of the same nature as the substance which forms the alveoli of the cytoplasm. The interstices of the nucleus are filled with nuclear sap. A limiting nuclear membrane may be present, but it is not an essential part of the nucleus. The nuclear material may be all gathered together in a single mass, or it may be distributed in small granules so that, at the first glance, no nucleus seems to be present. Such a nucleus is called a distributed nucleus.

Functions of the Protozoa.

Most animals are composed of a great number of cells; a protozoön consists of a single cell. In an animal which is composed of many cells, the various functions of the body are each carried out by a special type

of cell; for example, movement is performed by the muscle cells, digestion is partially provided for by the cells of the alimentary canal, and urine is excreted by the kidney cells. A protozoön is a unicellular animal and each of these functions must be performed within the single cell of which it consists. Consequently, areas in every protozoön are differentiated so as to form portions which are each devoted to special cell functions. These portions are called *organellæ*, and by means of them all the activities of a large animal go on in an organism which consists of a single cell.

The functions of the nucleus are not completely understood but it seems certain that the nucleus is a controlling center for the cell's activities. Its functions, therefore, are, roughly, two-fold; they are either concerned with the maintenance of the cell, or they are concerned with its reproduction; that is, they are either somatic or sexual. Usually, both functions are subserved by a single nucleus; sometimes, however, as in the flagellates, they are divided between two nuclei.

The activities of a protozoön may be divided into three classes: LOCOMOTION, METABOLISM* and REPRODUCTION.

LOCOMOTION.—The protozoa have several different methods of moving themselves about. Some of them move by the formation of pseudopodia; in this method of progression, the protoplasm flows out, in finger-like processes, from the body of the parasite and, as the protoplasm flows into these processes, the whole organism progresses, literally, by flowing along. Some of the gregarines move about by means of a flowing of the protoplasm which always takes place in one direction; it is probable that the control of the direction of the flow in these parasites is effected by the contraction of myonemes. Myonemes are contractile fibers, which usually lie near the surface of the organism possessing them. Through their contraction, the form of the body of the parasite may be altered and, in this way, motion may be produced. Cilia are small hair-like multiple, often numerous processes, which may be placed either in definite areas or over the whole surface of a protozoön. They produce motion by waving; they usually act together and their motion has a strong simultaneous stroke in one common direction. Flagella are larger than cilia; they are whip-like processes which have a lashing movement. They are usually few in number and are often placed at the ends of the organism.

REPRODUCTION.—The protozoa reproduce in many different ways and

*For a consideration of *metabolism*, see p. 82, Part II, Physiology.

several of these ways may occur in a single organism. For this reason, their reproductive power is very great; in power of repeating their like, they fall just short of the bacteria. The union of a male and a female form does not always precede multiplication; sexual connection and reproduction, though now united in many animals, were originally two entirely distinct phenomena and, in the protozoa, though sexual union may be concerned with the production of new individuals, it is often especially associated with the regeneration of the protoplasm of the parasites taking part in it.

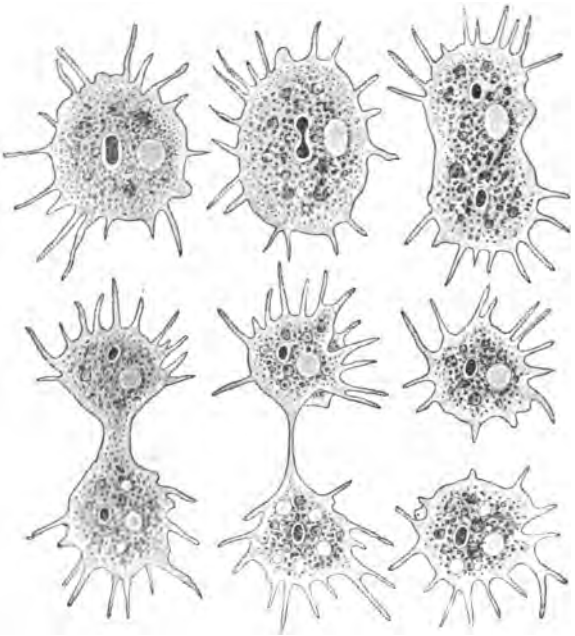


FIG. 45.—Stages in the division of *Amœba polypodia*. (*After F. E. Schulze and Lange from Doflein.*)

The simplest of the methods of reproduction is simple *binary division*, in which the organism divides into two equal parts. A modification of this process is *gemmulation*, in which a small protozoön buds off from a larger parent; sometimes many buds are formed rapidly, one after the other, until the parent protozoön disappears in a swarm of daughter cells. When a protozoön divides at a single division to produce a large number

of daughter cells simultaneously, the process is called *schizogony* and the young parasites are called *merozoites*, if a sexual fertilization has not preceded the act of division; if such a division, in which the parent organism disappears, takes place after a fertilizing act, the process is called *sporogony* and the young parasites are *sporozoites*.

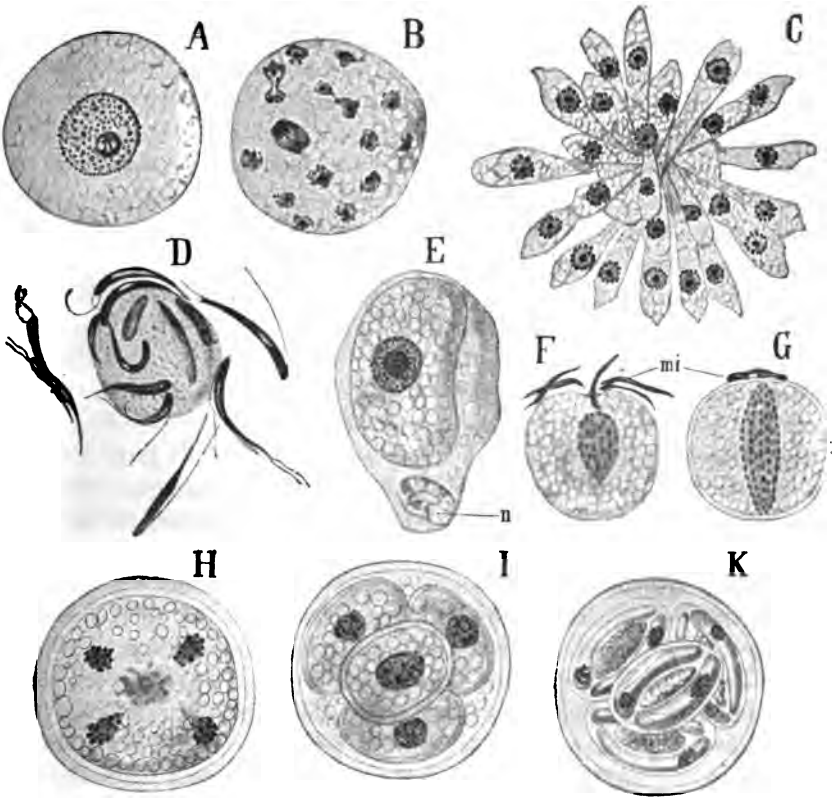


FIG. 46.—*Coccidium schubergi*. *A–C*, asexual multiplication; *D–K*, sexual multiplication; *D*, microgametes; *E*, macrogamete; *F*, *G*, fertilization; *H*, *I*, *K*, division and spore production. (*After Schaudinn, from Doflein.*)

In protozoa, as in metazoa, the essential process in fertilization is the union of two nuclei of opposite sex. Before union, these nuclei undergo a series of divisions, in which the number of the chromosomes is reduced and polar bodies are extruded. In dividing, almost all cells go through a process called *mistosis*. In mitosis, the chromatin of the nucleus is

grouped into masses which are called *chromosomes.* The number of chromosomes which are formed during mitosis is constant and characteristic for each species. In the reproductive areas, during the two divisions just preceding the maturity of cells which are to become ova or spermatozoa, the number of chromosomes is reduced to exactly one-half of the number which are formed during the division of cells outside of the reproductive areas of the same animals. The process by which the number of chromosomes is reduced is reduction, and the fragments of chromatin which are unused and which are extruded from the cell during the process are called polar bodies. Reduction and extrusion of polar bodies always precede fertilization (Fig. 46).

The fertilizing processes which occur in the protozoa may be classed under three heads: *Copulation, Conjugation* and *Self-fertilization.* In *copulation* two whole cells unite. The cells taking part in this union are called gametes and they are male *microgametes,* or female *macrogametes.* The cells which produce the gametes are called *gametocytes.* The product of the union is called a *copula* or *zygote.* If the uniting cells be equal in size the copulation is *isogamous;* if they be unequal, the copulation is said to be *anisogamous.* Anisogamous copulation, the union of two unequal cells, is most typically seen in the fertilization of a large macrogamete by a small microgamete. *Copulation* is a most important fertilizing process among the pathogenic protozoa. *Conjugation,* the second method of fertilization, only occurs among the ciliata. In it, two adult individuals are placed in apposition. The nucleus of each cell first reduces and then divides into two halves, one male, the other female. Each organism retains its female half nucleus, while an exchange of the male half nuclei is effected. Processes of *self-fertilization,* such as *autogamy* and *parthenogenesis,* are included under the third heading. In *autogamy* the nucleus of a single cell divides into two parts. Each of these undergoes two further divisions, during which the chromosomes are reduced and polar bodies are extruded. The two resulting, reduced, half-nuclei unite, always in the same cell, to form a new nucleus. *Parthenogenesis* is the development of new individuals from a female cell without a preceding fertilization; this process occurs in many protozoa, and through it may be explained some of the acute outbreaks of malaria which may occur in patients who once suffered from that disease and were thought to have been cured of it.

It was said that fertilization and multiplication might be distinct

processes. This is evident from a consideration of the phenomena of autogamy and parthenogenesis, which have just been mentioned. Reproduction occurs in both these processes without a preceding union of two sexually differentiated cells.

The DEVELOPMENTAL CYCLE of a protozoön is the history of the processes through which it may pass in the period intervening between each fertilizing act. In many of the pathogenic protozoa, an alternation of generations occurs; that is, states of being of the parasite in which an asexual method of reproduction occurs, alternate with states of being in which reproduction is effected by sexual methods. The developmental cycle is often complicated by binary division, which may occur at any point, by cyst formation, and by the intervention of a second host as a necessary factor for the existence of a part of the cycle. An alternation of generations occurs in the life cycle of the parasite which produces malaria (Fig. 125); this parasite is one of the most important of the pathogenic protozoa. While it is in the body of its mammalian host, man, it multiplies by binary division and by schizogony; it multiplies, sexually, within the body of its invertebrate host, a mosquito. The host in which the adult, sexual stages of the parasite occur, in this instance the mosquito, is said to be the *definitive host;* hosts harboring the parasite while it is in other stages are called *intermediate hosts.*

ENCYSTMENT.—When unfavorable circumstances, such as drying, occur, many protozoa are able to surround themselves by a resistant cyst and to enter upon a resting stage of indefinite length. The cyst protects them from hurtful influences and, surrounded by it, they remain in a resting state until favorable circumstances come about once more. The power of forming resistant cysts plays an important part in the life-history of many parasitic protozoa; it is especially so with those protozoa which have become so specialized that continued existence outside of their appropriate host has become impossible for them. It is often through the formation of cysts that an infection by a protozoön is spread; then, as in the coccidia, the presence of such a stage is absolutely essential in the life history of the parasite.

PARASITISM.

A parasite is a living being which is, at some time, directly dependent upon another, usually a stronger being.

Although the word parasite is often used as though it referred only

to organisms belonging to the animal kingdom, parasites may be either animal or vegetable; bacteria and fungi, which live at the expense of other living beings, are parasites just as the disease-producing protozoa, and the biting insects which transmit them, are parasites.

Most parasites are simple organisms, low in the scale of life. They nourish themselves without exertion, at the expense of their hosts, and, as might be expected, their unemployed organs, such as the sensory, locomotory and seizing appendages, through which food is usually obtained, gradually disappear; degeneration always occurs in an organism which assumes a parasitic mode of life.

Organisms, such as the malarial parasite, which are wholly dependent for existence upon their hosts, are called *obligatory* parasites; those which are not, such as the infusoria usually found in the stomach of herbivorous animals, are *facultative* parasites. Facultative parasites often feed upon dead material provided by the host, and not upon the host itself; they are then said to be *saprophytic.*

If a parasite is attached to a host, and neither harms nor benefits it, the parasite and host are said to be *commensals.* For example, the spirochætes found about the teeth of many persons are usually harmless; they are commensals of their host. If the host of an obligatory parasite dies, the parasite perishes also. Consequently, it is contrary to the interest of such a parasite to destroy its host; yet parasites often do harm their hosts. The harm done by a parasite to its host is recognized by the disease caused by it. The pathogenic protozoa do harm to their hosts in three main ways: They may feed upon, and destroy cells; they may produce poisonous toxins; and their presence may do damage by mechanically obstructing some of the functions of its host. All three of these ways are well exemplified by the action of the malarial parasite on man (p. 685).

Discussion of the Classification.*

This grouping of the protozoa gives a general idea of the position, in zoölogical sequence, of the individual parasites which are spoken of in the following pages. It simply divides the *Protozoa* into four classes: the RHIZOPODA, the FLAGELLATA, the SPOROZOA, and the INFUSORIA; and subdivides these classes directly into genera. This is by no means a

* (See page 10.)

complete classification of the protozoa, for there are many orders and genera which are unmentioned because they are parasitic neither in man nor in animals.

The form of a protozoön may vary greatly at different stages of its development; for example, the adult trypanosome is an active organism moving by means of a flagellum, the spherical developmental form of the same parasite may have no flagellum. Consequently, the whole life history of a protozoön must be known before it can be classified with absolute certainty. The whole of the life history is known of only a few protozoa; and, though the organisms mentioned in this classification are placed in the position usually given to them, it must be understood that this classification is not final, and that the discovery of new stages in the life history of some of these protozoa might make it necessary to remove them from the classes in which they have been placed; for example, before its flagellate stage was known, *Herpetomonas donovani* was known as *Leishmania donovani*, and it was classified with the sporozoa. Now it is grouped with the herpetomonads.

The characteristics of the different genera and of the unimportant parasites are very briefly mentioned in the next few paragraphs; the important parasites are treated more fully in the pages indicated by the references given, in brackets, throughout the classification.

The RHIZOPODA include the simplest forms of animal life. A rhizopod, such as an amœba, consists of a single cell, without a protective covering, and without organs of locomotion; it moves and ingests food by means of pseudopodia. Very few of the rhizopods are parasitic; most of those which are parasitic belong to the genus *Amœbæ*. Amœbæ of different species may occur in any part of the alimentary canals of animals of many different species (p. 667).

The FLAGELLATA are distinguished by possessing one or more flagella; they often have, also, a fin-like, undulating membrane. Most flagellates are free-living. Comparatively few species are parasitic; but some of these cause very serious diseases (p. 667).

The SPIROCHÆTÆ, as their name signifies, are thread-like organisms, which seem to be coiled in a spiral. It is probable that the curves of many spirochætes lie in one plane and, consequently, that their bodies are really waved and not spiral. They often have an undulating membrane and a flagellum at either end. A *Herpetomonas* is an elongated organism which possesses a nucleus and a *blepharoblast*. The blepharoblast is

usually situated near the blunter end of the parasite, and from it arises a terminal flagellum. A *Crithidia* is an organism very much resembling a *Herpetomonas*, with a pear-shaped body and, sometimes, a rudimentary undulating membrane. A *Trypanosoma* is an elongated parasite which has a nucleus, a kinetonucleus, an undulating membrane and a flagellum. Species of *Herpetomonas*, *Crithidia* and *Trypanosoma* are frequently found in the intestines of insects. One species of *Herpetomonas* is a frequent and harmless parasite in the intestine of the house fly. The genus *Trypanoplasma* contains organisms which have a flagellum at either end, as well as an undulating membrane. They are parasitic in the blood of fishes. The genera *Cercomonas*, *Monas*, and *Plagiomonas* include small, unimportant flagellate organisms which have been found, occasionally, to be parasitic in man; they have been found in the urine, and in necrotic material from the lungs. A *Trichomonas* is a pear-shaped organism which has four flagella attached to its blunt end, and an undulating membrane. A species of it is sometimes found in the human bladder. Other species are common, usually harmless, parasites in the intestines of pigs, frogs and other animals. The most important species of the genus *Lamblia* is *Lamblia intestinalis*. It also is a pear-shaped organism. It has several flagella and is distinguished by possessing a depressed sucker, by which it attaches itself to the wall of the intestine of the animal in which it lives. It may cause severe diarrhœa in man, and it may produce a fatal disease of the intestines in rabbits.

The SPOROZOA are protozoa which may multiply by the production of spores; they are always parasitic at some stage of their life cycle. There are very many sporozoa so, for convenience of classification, they are subdivided into seven orders. The *Gregarinæ* have a very distinctive shape; the single cell, which composes them, is divided into two or more divisions. The first of these divisions is furnished with hooks through which the parasite attaches itself to its host. None of the gregarines are parasitic on mammals; worms are the hosts for some of them. The *Coccidia* are usually parasitic within cells of their host, other than blood cells; for example, *Coccidium cuniculi* (p. 681) enters the liver cells of the rabbit, while *Coccidium avium* enters and destroys the cells lining the intestines of the birds which it infects (p. 681). The *Hæmosporidia* live, for a part of their life cycle, within the red cells of the blood of their hosts. They are a very important order. The genus *Plasmodium* causes malaria in man (p. 682); while *Proteosoma* and *Hæmoproteus* are malarial parasites

of birds (p. 682). The *Hæmogregarinæ* are usually harmless parasites of reptiles and batrachians (frogs); a part of their life is passed within the red cells of their host, but they have a slowly-moving stage, somewhat resembling a gregarine, which occurs free in the blood. *Hepatozoön perniciosum* is the best known of a group of hæmogregarine-like parasites which are parasitic, often within the white cells of the blood, in dogs, in rats, and in other rodents; so far as is known, they do not cause disease. The genus *Babesia* (p. 686) includes parasites which cause important diseases in cattle, sheep, horses and dogs. Similar parasites have been found in the blood of monkeys, of dogs, of rats and other rodents. The *Sarcosporidia* are tube-like in shape and filled with spores. They are found within the cells of the voluntary muscles. The *Haplosporidia* are an important group of very small sporozoa. Some of them are parasitic in fish; one of them, *Rhinosporidium kinealyi*, has been found in a tumor of the nose of a native of India. The *Myxosporidia* (p. 688) are recognized by the peculiar form of their spores; each spore has a capsule and is furnished with one or more threads. Members of this order are parasitic in various parts of fishes and they often produce disease in their hosts. The spores of the *Microsporidia* (p. 688) are exceedingly small; a member of this order is the cause of *pébrine* (p. 688).

The INFUSORIA (p. 689) are a large class. Most of them are not parasitic. They are the most highly developed of the protozoa and their bodies are more or less covered with cilia, by which they move themselves through the liquids in which they live.

In the last class, under the heading *Parasites of Uncertain Position*, are grouped a number of organisms which cannot be classified because so little is known of them at present. *Histoplasma capsulatum* (p. 689), the *Chlamydozoa* (p. 689) and the *Ultramicroscopic viruses* (p. 64, 690) are all associated with important diseases in men and in animals.

Those parasites which are important enough to require special consideration are described in the order in which they are mentioned in the classification (p. 10). Whenever it is possible to do so, a single species is taken as the type of each genus and that species, with the disease it produces, is described; if the remaining species of the genus are mentioned, they are spoken of only to indicate how they differ from the description of the type species.

Technic.

The methods employed in studying the pathogenic protozoa are very similar to those used in bacteriology. Microscopes, with the highest magnifications, are used in order that the appearance of the protozoa may be observed. The observation, with the microscope, of living specimens is a most important means of studying organisms which undergo such wide changes of form as do many of the pathogenic protozoa. Some parts of a protozoön cannot be seen in a fresh, living specimen; in order to make these structures visible, preparations must often be fixed and stained by appropriate methods; one of the methods most widely used is fixation in absolute alcohol and staining by some modification of Romanowsky's stain, such as Giemsa's method.

Much has been learned concerning bacteria and fungi by cultivating them on artificially-prepared culture media. Some of the protozoa can be cultivated during a part, or all, of their life cycle on similar media; but culture methods have not been so important in the study of the protozoa as they have been in bacteriology. One reason for this is, probably, that many of the parasitic protozoa live, naturally, upon certain very highly specialized cells; it is difficult to prepare a culture medium sufficiently resembling the substance of those cells to enable it to be substituted for them. Another reason is that many of the protozoa exist under widely differing conditions at different stages of their life history. Even though a culture medium might be devised suitable for one of the stages of a protozoön, it is scarcely probable that the same medium would be suitable for its growth at all stages of its development. Nevertheless, much has been learned concerning the life histories of protozoa through the employment of culture methods. Culture methods are sometimes useful in diagnosing diseases, caused by protozoa; for the multiplication of the parasites, in a suitable medium, may reveal the presence of pathogenic protozoa, when they are too few to be detected by the microscopical examination of the infected material from which the culture was made; for example, the flagellated stage of *Leishmania furunculosa* may develop in cultures of material taken from a Delhi boil in which the resting stage of the parasite cannot be found (p. 675).

PART II.

PHYSIOLOGY OF MICROORGANISMS.*

DIVISION I.

NUTRITION AND METABOLISM.

INTRODUCTION.

PRINCIPLES OF NUTRITION AND METABOLISM.—The nutrition and metabolism of microörganisms is based on the same principles that regulate animal and plant metabolism. Only in a few instances, *i.e.*, in the anaerobiosis and in nitrogen fixation, we have processes unparalleled in the more highly developed organisms. Since it will be necessary frequently to refer to plant and animal nutrition in the course of this discussion, these principles, therefore, are briefly discussed in the following paragraph.

Green plants feed only on mineral substances. They assimilate carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the air which unites with water, nitrates, potassium, calcium, and other salts of the soil and form the body substances of the plant. The cellulose, starch, sugar, protein and all other compounds constituting the plant cells are produced from the above mentioned minerals. This formation of organic compounds requires a certain amount of energy. If cellulose is burned to carbon dioxide (CO_2) and to water (H_2O), a certain amount of energy is liberated in the form of heat. Consequently the same amount of energy will be needed to produce cellulose from carbon dioxide and water; for the law of the conservation of energy requires that if a certain process liberates a certain quantity of energy, the reverse process will require the same quantity of energy. Green plants get their energy from the sunlight. The radiant energy of light is transformed by the chlorophyl granules of the plant leaves into chemical energy which causes the formation of organic com.

*Prepared by Otto Rahn.

pounds from the inorganic or mineral matter. Chlorophyl is the green coloring substance of plants, and only green plants can use the energy of sunlight for their growth. The growth of green plants is a storing of the energy of light in the form of organic matter; their metabolism is largely synthetic, *i.e.*, building up. Plants without chlorophyl, like mushrooms, molds, yeasts and bacteria, have to provide for their energy by some other means.

Animals feed mainly on organic matter. Their body substances as protein, fat, etc., are derived from the protein, fat, cellulose, etc., of plants or of animals. Nevertheless, a certain amount of energy is required in this assimilation process, since the animal protein and fat are different from the plant protein and fat. Consequently, complex chemical changes, which require energy, are necessary for growth. Energy is also lost by radiation of heat and by locomotion. Animals, being entirely unable to use the sunlight as a source of energy, obtain their energy from the digestion of organic food. The larger part of this food is oxidized completely; this part provides for the energy. Part of the food is used for building the tissue of the body; it becomes part of the animal itself. Animal metabolism is largely analytic, *i.e.*, destructive. More organic matter is decomposed than is formed. Often the same substance can serve both purposes: the meat eaten by a dog furnishes to it energy as well as material for growth. In other cases, certain food compounds excute only one function and not the other. The distinction between food for energy and food for growth will be of value in the interpretation of microbial metabolism.

In the first part of this book, microörganisms have been divided into plants and animals, but attention has been called in various places to the fact that it is often hard to determine whether the plant characters or the animal characters prevail. This holds true not only with the morphology, but also with the physiology of microörganisms. Since none of the plants discussed in this text-book possesses chlorophyl, none of them can use light as a source of energy, therefore they depend entirely upon chemical energy obtained by the digestion of food. This means that they require organic food almost entirely, since mineral food furnishes energy only in exceptional cases. In this respect they resemble the animals very much.

The metabolism of protozoa is furnished by Todd (p. 71) as follows: "The ingestion of food is accomplished in some protozoa by pseudopodia; the protozoön simply flows around and so encloses a food particle. In the

same way, these protozoa flow away from waste particles which are to be excreted. Other protozoa have definite mouth areas for the ingestion of food, and definite anal areas for its excretion. Those protozoa which ingest solid food, digest it within gastric vacuoles; the food is digested in these vacuoles, as it is in many-celled animals, by the aid of enzymes and of acids. The most important of the disease-producing protozoa live within nutrient fluids, for example the blood, and they obtain their nour-

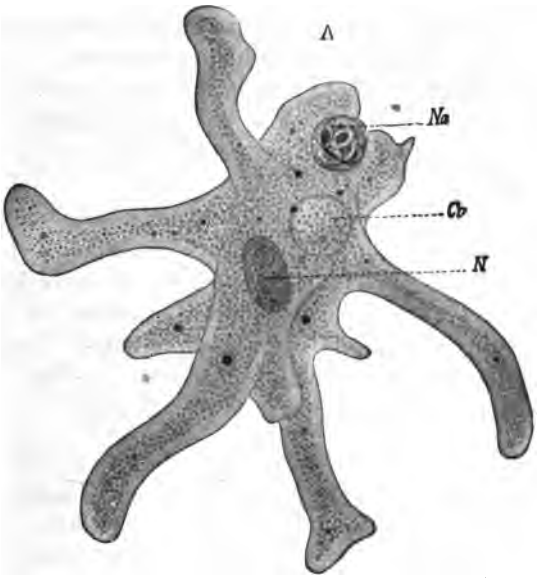


FIG. 47.—*A*, *Amœba proteus; Na*, a food particle; *Cv*, contractile vacuole; *N*, nucleus. (*After Doflein.*)

ishment from the fluid in which they live, by osmosis; consequently, they have no definite mouth area, nor gastric vacuoles, Fig. 47.

"Some of the protozoa, for example, the ciliata, possess contractile vacuoles. A contractile vacuole is a clear area which appears, grows slowly, empties itself, by a rapid contraction, of the water which has drained to it, and forms again. The water which it ejects contains the soluble waste products resulting from the metabolism of the protozoön. One function of the contractile vacuoles is, therefore, excretion; in some protozoa, they are probably also concerned with respiration. Contractile

vacuoles are usually absent in protozoa which are parasitic within other animals."

A plant character which is found in most molds and yeasts, and in some bacteria, is the assimilation of nitrates and ammonium salts, but this distinction is not at all definite, for a large number of bacteria are exceptions. It will be unnecessary, therefore, always to make a distinction between microbial plants and animals.

ENERGY SUPPLY OF MICROÖRGANISMS.—Microörganisms, like animals, require food for energy as well as food for growth, and, as with animals, one compound may often serve for both these functions. It is not always possible to state whether or not a certain compound is used for growth as well as for energy production, because the amount required for growth is always very insignificant, but the distinction exists and can be indicated by a few examples.

Certain bacteria are known to live entirely on mineral matter; they use minerals exclusively for building their cell substances, resembling in this respect the green plants, and provide for the necessary energy by oxidizing mineral compounds. Two typical examples are the nitrifying organisms in soil which oxidize ammonia to nitrates. This process, according to Winogradski, is divided distinctly into two phases: the *Nitrosomonas* oxidizes the ammonia to nitrous acid,

$$NH_3 + 3O = HNO_2 + H_2O$$

and the *Nitromonas* oxidizes the nitrous acid to nitric acid,

$$HNO_2 + O = HNO_3$$

These oxidation processes yield a certain amount of energy which enables the bacteria to build their cells from carbon dioxide, ammonia, and certain mineral salts. Without ammonia or without nitrous acid, respectively, these bacteria cannot grow for lack of energy; they would be like a plant without light. It is evident in this case that the food for energy is also used to some extent as food for growth. The nitrogen necessary to the bacteria is supplied by the ammonia or the nitrous acid.

As an example distinguishing between the food for growth and the food for energy may be mentioned the hyposulphite bacterium studied by Nathanson. This organism oxidizes hyposulphites to sulphates and sulphur, largely following the formula

$$\underset{\text{Hyposulphite}}{Na_2S_2O_3} + O = \underset{\text{Sulphate}}{Na_2SO_4} + \underset{\text{Sulphur}}{S}$$

Besides, some more complex compounds, like sodium tetrathionate ($Na_2S_4O_6$), are formed. The bacterium builds its cells exclusively from nitrates, carbon dioxide, and mineral salts; organic food is rejected. The hyposulphite can hardly be used for the construction of the cell, and must be considered entirely a food for energy.

This distinction is not confined to mineral decomposition only. The urea bacteria get their energy from the decomposition of urea into ammonium carbonate.

$$\underset{\text{Urea}}{(NH_2)_2CO} + 2H_2O = \underset{\text{Ammonium carbonate}}{(NH_4)_2CO_3}$$

But the urea and mineral salts are not sufficient for the development of the urea bacteria. They cannot use urea as a material for building the cells, nor can they use carbon dioxide or carbonates; they cannot grow unless a suitable material for cell construction is added. Söhngen demonstrated that a few milligrams of malic acid allow a good development of the bacteria. The malic acid was used entirely for the formation of cell substances. The energy for this formation came from the urea fermentation. This example shows clearly the different requirements for cell growth and for the energy supply.

This difference exists also in the alcoholic fermentation by yeasts. Recently Lindner and Saito have shown that some yeasts ferment certain sugars, and thus can obtain energy, but they cannot use them for growth. They depend upon other organic substances for cell building material. Other sugars can be used for growth, but cannot be fermented. As a general rule, the monoses of the formula $C_6H_{12}O_6$ are most easily fermented, while the bioses with the formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, especially maltose, are much better adapted for growth.

Generally speaking, microörganisms obtain their energy by causing chemical decompositions which may be either oxidations (nitrification, vinegar fermentation) or intramolecular changes (urea fermentation, alcoholic fermentation). Many organisms are able to cause various decompositions. Yeasts will ferment sugar to alcohol and carbon dioxide if air is completely or largely excluded, but if the yeast culture is well aerated, the larger part of the sugar is oxidized completely to carbon dioxide and water, and the alcoholic fermentation is retarded. This double action upon sugar is still more pronounced with many representatives of the mucor family. They oxidize in presence of air and cause

alcoholic fermentation when submerged in the liquid. A number of bacteria can grow without sugar if oxygen is present, because they can obtain their energy by oxidation. In the absence of oxygen, however, they can multiply only if some fermentable material like sugar is present, because this is the only source of energy available under anaerobic conditions.

The amount of energy produced by the microbial cells is generally larger than the amount required for growth. The excess energy is transformed to heat which causes a rise of temperature in the culture medium. The formation of heat will be discussed more in detail in one of the following paragraphs.

CHAPTER I.

FOOD OF MICROÖRGANISMS.

The Composition of the Cell.

For the study of the amounts and kinds of different food substances used by microörganisms, it will be necessary to know first the material that constitutes the cells. Naturally, the main constituent of the cell is water.

Moisture.—The amount of water in the cells of microörganisms will vary with the species as well as with the cultural conditions. The total solids of "mother-of-vinegar" are only 1.7 per cent. This should be considered as an extreme and very unusual case, owing to the spongy nature of the jelly-like cell membrane. The average water content of bacteria seems to be about 85 per cent; it varies more with yeasts and still more with higher fungi. It seems reasonable to suppose that organisms grown in concentrated solutions as the organisms of salted meat and the molds growing in strong sugar solutions contain more solids. Spores of molds contain much more solid matter than the mycelium; the water content in two analyses of spores amounted to about 39 and 44 per cent respectively. Bacterial spores have not been analyzed, but probably are much the same.

Cell Wall.—The membrane of microörganisms does not generally consist of true cellulose $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_x$, though it is found in some cases. Other compounds, related to cellulose, are more common; chitin* $(C_{18}H_{30}N_2O_{12})$, or another very similar nitrogenous compound is also found. The slime surrounding some bacteria, and the capsules, consist largely of carbohydrates, but often contain some protein.

Cell Contents.—The main portion of the cell is the protoplasm, a mixture of protein substances, each of which has a very complex nature. Enzymes which play an important rôle in metabolism (page 135) are

* Chitin when hydrolized yields glucosamine and acetic acid.

$$C_{18}H_{30}N_2O_{12} + 4H_2O = 2CH_2OH{\cdot}CHOH{\cdot}CHOH{\cdot}CHOH{\cdot}CHNH{\cdot}_2CHO + 3CH{\cdot}_3COOH.$$

produced in the protoplasm and are either secreted or retained. All products of metabolism will be found in the protoplasm of the cell in small quantities. Among other substances frequently found in microörganisms may be mentioned glycogen $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$ which can be readily detected by the brown color it gives when acted upon by iodine. Glycogen may be considered as a reserve substance stored by the organism. In the same way, fats exist in microörganisms, but are more generally found; their presence can be detected by microscopical examinations as well as by chemical tests. The amount of fat in some bacteria is surprisingly high. In the tubercle bacterium 26. to 39.29 per cent of the total solids is fat. All acid-fast bacterial cells have a very high fat content. Other bacteria also contain occasionally as much as 8 per cent fat. Yeasts seem to have a lower fat content, while in molds it has been found to vary from 0.5 to 50.5 per cent. Many other products of organic nature are found occasionally, but their importance is not determined.

The minerals of the microbial cell are very essential, and like the organic materials, necessary for the life of the cell. The total ash of bacteria, yeasts, and molds, is small, about 1.5 per cent to 8 per cent of the dry cell. The important minerals which seem necessary for the construction of the cell are potassium, calcium, magnesium, iron, manganese, and, of the metalloids, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulphur. Some other minerals are usually found, but are unnecessary to the cell, as sodium and silicon.

Amount of Food Required.

The amount of food that is ordinarily decomposed by microörganisms and the amount that is absolutely necessary, differ widely. The quantity of organic and inorganic matter just sufficient to support a very weak growth is certainly very small, since a few species will multiply to some extent in ordinary distilled water. Such water, after having stood for some time, is found to contain several thousand bacteria per c.c. It may seem to the layman that in such water it would be possible to detect easily the organic and inorganic matter of the microörganisms and then it would not be considered distilled water. An estimate of the weight of bacteria demonstrates, however, that this is not the case. If we suppose the average bacterial cell to be a cylinder whose base measures one square micron and whose height is two microns (which is a high estimate) the volume of such a cell would be $1 \times 1 \times 2$ cubic microns $= 0.001 \times$

0.001 × 0.002 mm. = 0.000,000,002 cu. mm. The specific gravity of bacteria being very nearly 1, the weight of one bacterium would be 0.000,000,002 mg.; 100,000 cells per c.c. means 100,000,000 cells per liter, which would weigh 0.2 mg. Of this total weight, at least four-fifths is water and only one-fifth is solid matter. The total solid matter in one liter of water containing 100,000 bacteria per c.c. amounts to the unmeasurable quantity of 0.04 mg. Such water will pass the tests for distilled water. How much food the bacteria in distilled water have used is impossible to say, since besides the traces of minerals in the water, they obtain some food from volatile compounds of the air like carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO_2), ammonia (NH_3), hydrogen (H), and perhaps methane (CH_4). Under all circumstances the amount of food used is very small.

On the other extreme, the maximum amount of food cannot be stated very definitely. Usually bacteria cease to cause decomposition because of the accumulation of noxious metabolic products. The ordinary bacterium from sour milk will not form more than about 1 per cent of lactic acid, because this is the highest acid concentration that this bacterium can endure. If this acid is neutralized, the inhibiting cause is removed, and the lactic fermentation starts anew until the maximum acidity is reached again. The amount of food decomposed depends largely upon the power of the organism to resist its own products. If the food is too concentrated, however, physical influences may interfere with the metabolism of the cell (Part II, Division II, Chapter I).

Organic Food Materials.

The total weight of a large bacterial cell is estimated in the preceding paragraph to be about 0.000,000,002 mg., of which only about one-fifth is dry matter. The smallest quantity that can be weighed accurately on ordinary analytical balances is 0.1 mg. The solid matter of 250,000,000 bacteria will amount to about 0.1 mg. McNeal and associates found that the dry matter of 550,000,000 cells of *B. coli* weigh 0.1 mg. The amount of food that is used as the building material for the cell is probably larger than the weight of the cell itself, since there will be waste products, but it is of the same order of magnitude, *i.e.*, very small and often hardly measurable. The example of the urea fermentation (on page 85) illustrates this point very well.

Quite large in comparison, though, is the amount of food used to provide for the energy requirements of the cell. The quantities of protein matter decomposed in soft cheese, of sugar destroyed by alcoholic and lactic fermentations, are very large and easily determined analytically.

NON-NITROGENOUS FOOD COMPOUNDS.—The simplest carbon compound, carbon dioxide (CO_2), cannot possibly be used as a source of energy, because it cannot be decomposed with liberation of energy. It is used for cell construction by a few bacteria, *e.g.*, the nitrifying and the sulphur bacteria. This must be considered an unusual occurrence, however, since nearly all other bacteria and all yeasts, molds and protozoa depend on organic matter for their cell construction. *Methane* (CH_4) can be used by one or two bacteria for growth as well as for energy, and even *hydrogen* gas serves as food, together with carbon dioxide, to one bacterium. As a general rule, however, hydrocarbons are not attacked by microörganisms. The compounds containing oxygen in addition to carbon and hydrogen are better adapted for microbial food. The simple *alcohols* can be used only by a few microörganisms, while the more complex alcohols, like glycerin ($C_3H_5(OH)_3$), mannit ($C_6H_8(OH)_6$), etc., are very valuable as food for most molds, yeasts and bacteria. Apparently the best nitrogen-free food compounds for microörganisms are the *carbohydrates*, especially the hexoses, $C_6H_{12}O_6$, and the bioses, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$. They can be decomposed in many different ways, always yielding energy. They are also very valuable as material for cell construction, and as mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, the bioses are better adapted for cell construction while the monoses are more easily fermented. The insoluble carbohydrates like starch and cellulose are not as generally decomposed by microörganisms as the soluble carbohydrates, though many species have the ability to attack them.

Organic acids are excellent food for the microörganisms having strong oxidizing properties, since oxidation is almost the only process of decomposition that will yield energy from acids. Some of the dibasic organic acids [succinic acid ($CO_2H \cdot CH_2 \cdot CH_2 \cdot CO_2H$) and tartaric acid ($CO_2H \cdot CH(OH) \cdot CH(OH) \cdot CO_2H$)] are quite commonly used as building material; they are often added to culture media for microbial plants. Ordinarily, *fats* are not easily attacked. They are first split into their components, glycerin and fatty acids, and the glycerin is decomposed readily while the acids are used up very slowly. Other organic compounds may be used occasionally by certain microörganisms, and probably there is no organic

compound that cannot be decomposed under certain conditions by certain microörganisms. Even strong poisons like formaldehyde, and insoluble compounds like paraffin, are known to serve as microbial food.

NITROGENOUS FOOD COMPOUNDS.—Nitrogen is an absolutely necessary constituent of the protoplasm, and therefore indispensable to the life of the cell. The amount of nitrogen compounds required for cell construction is necessarily very small, because of the small size of the cell. Green plants assimilate nitrogen only in the form of nitrates or ammonia; animals require proteins, or peptones, and may occasionally live on amido-acids. Nothing can be said about microörganisms in general, since some require proteins, while others can feed on ammonia, nitrates and even on free nitrogen.

The few microörganisms assimilating the *free nitrogen* of the air are very important since they increase the nitrogen content of the soil. They must have some source of energy to form their protoplasm, and this is supplied in the soil in the form of carbohydrates, organic acids, and similar organic compounds. Unless some such compounds are available, the nitrogen-fixing bacteria cannot grow. The amount of growth and amount of nitrogen fixed depend mainly upon the amount of available food. *Nitrates* are more commonly used by microörganisms as a source of nitrogen. They cannot serve as a source of energy, however, since they cannot be decomposed in any way so as to yield energy. Many molds and some bacteria can use nitrates. *Ammonium salts* are more readily used than nitrates, and a large number of bacteria and yeasts and almost all molds can use them in the formation of protoplasm. As a source of energy, ammonium salts can be used only by the nitrate forming bacteria which oxidize them to nitrates. The strictly organic nitrogen compounds may be used as a nitrogen source and as an energy source at the same time. This is true with the *urea* and with *amido-acids*. Many microörganisms will thrive in a solution of asparagin [$(CO_2H.CH_2.CH(NH_2).CO(NH_2)$].

With the amido-acids, we leave the chemically well-known compounds and come to the very complex and chemically unknown peptones. *Peptones* are a very good source of nitrogen and can be used as a source of energy also by most organisms. *Proteins* are not quite so generally used because many of them are insoluble. Many kinds of bacteria that will grow in peptone solution do not liquefy gelatin. But a large number of microörganisms have very strong proteolytic (protein-dissolving) qualities and use the protein to great advantage. Most molds and

many bacteria belong to this class of organisms, while only a few yeasts have this ability. The absolutely insoluble compounds of protein nature, like the keratin of hair and horn, can be decomposed by only a very few organisms.

Though very little is known about the nutrition of protozoa, it may be mentioned here that the saprozoic forms are not able to live on any recognized soluble food media. They require solid food (bacteria, algæ, diatoms, other protozoa, etc.), and it is recorded that most of them require living organisms for food and reject dead organisms.

Mineral Food.

The minerals needed by bacteria are used (with very few exceptions) entirely as structural food. The amount of mineral compounds is very small since they make up not more than about 8 per cent of the solid matter of bacterial cells. It is probable that the cells can exist and multiply even with smaller amounts. The necessary elements are nitrogen, phosphorus, sulphur, chlorine, potassium, calcium, magnesium, iron and manganese. There is still some doubt about the necessity of certain other elements. Such investigations are extremely difficult because of the mere traces of chemical compounds that enter into consideration. These elements are assimilated usually in the form of inorganic salts, with the exception of phosphorus and sulphur (and, of course, nitrogen). The organic compounds of these elements may be absorbed occasionally though the mineral sulphates and phosphates are by far more commonly utilized.

The use of mineral compounds for the production of energy is limited to a very few species of bacteria, while yeasts, molds, and protozoa cannot possibly utilize them. The nitrite and nitrate bacteria and the hyposulphite organisms have already been mentioned in connection with this. Another group consisting of a number of bacteria which are morphologically as well as physiologically different from the common species and which are known as the sulphur bacteria or thiobacteria (p. 60), oxidize hydrogen sulphide to sulphur, and sulphur to sulphates.

$$H_2S + O = H_2O + S$$

The sulphur formed by this process is stored in the bacterial cells which are often found nearly filled with sulphur granules. Sulphur takes the

place of fat, glycogen, or other stored substances. If the source of hydrogen sulphide ceases, the bacteria oxidize the sulphur within their cells to sulphuric acid.

$$S + H_2O + 3O = H_2SO_4$$

The second process of oxidation yields more energy than the one from hydrogen sulphide to sulphur. The so-called "iron bacteria" are another group of mineral-decomposing organisms, oxidizing ferrous salts to ferric salts. They are commonly found in running brooks and small rivers, and often develop in water pipes, sometimes forming in such large quantities as to fill them entirely. It is not certain, however, that they really obtain their energy by the oxidation of iron salts.

Organisms, feeding on marsh gas, hydrogen, and carbon monoxide, have been mentioned in the chapter on carbon supply. The very recent discovery of bacteria which can oxidize carbon as such in its elementary form may also be mentioned.

Oxygen.

Oxygen is indispensable to the life of all highly developed organisms. Animals especially need it to support the oxidation that takes place continuously in their cells and blood. Many animals die when the oxygen supply is exhausted. Higher plants also cannot exist very long in any atmosphere without oxygen.

The more simply organized forms of life are less sensitive, and microörganisms may grow without any free oxgyen. In the introduction to this chapter, it has been stated that some organisms obtain their energy by decomposing organic compounds without oxidation. The fermentation of urea consists of a simple addition of water.

$$\underset{\text{Urea}}{CO(NH_2)_2} + 2H_2O = \underset{\text{Ammonium carbonate}}{(NH_4)_2CO_3}$$

Alcoholic and lactic fermentations are other examples. The fermentative change of alcohol to acetic acid, however, is a process of oxidation.

$$\underset{\text{Alcohol}}{CH_3CH_2OH} + 2O = \underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_2COOH} + H_2O$$

Oxygen is required for this process. Similar oxidation processes are the formation of nitrates and decomposition of thiosulphate and of

hydrogen sulphide. Organisms which depend upon oxidizing processes for their supply of energy will not be able to grow without oxygen. This is the case with the acetic bacteria, with the nitrifying bacteria, and with many molds which are generally noted for their strong oxidizing properties.

The question arises whether the organisms which provide for their energy without oxidation will need oxygen for life processes other than energy supply. The urea bacteria require no free oxygen for their fermentation, but they require it for other life functions. Certain chemical changes can take place within the cell of these bacteria only if oxygen is present. They require very little oxygen, but they cease to grow if it be removed completely. There are, however, certain other microörganisms which can live in a complete absence of oxygen and there are some which die in the presence of oxygen.

The organisms which require free oxygen are called *aerobes;* those which can live without free oxygen are called *anaerobes.* Among the latter are the *obligate anaerobes,* which develop only in the absence of free oxygen, and the *facultative anaerobes* which can grow either with or without free oxygen. Even the aerobic microörganisms can tolerate the absence of oxygen for a considerable length of time, perhaps for years. They will not multiply but remain dormant until they come in contact with free oxygen again.

The influence of free oxygen upon the obligate anaerobic bacteria is remarkable; it does not only prevent their growth, but it kills them. Some butyric bacilli die if exposed to air for fifteen hours, while the spores of these bacilli are quite resistant. The study of these organisms is quite difficult, since it takes considerable effort to remove the last traces of oxygen from the culture media. Usually they are cultivated in an atmosphere of hydrogen; carbon dioxide and coal gas do not give as good results because these gases affect the growth of the bacteria. The best gas for the cultivation of anaerobes is nitrogen, because it is absolutely neutral, but it is difficult to obtain it free from oxygen. Anaerobic organisms may also be grown in a vacuum.

Even the obligate anaerobic organisms can tolerate a certain amount of oxygen. We can speak of a maximum concentration of oxygen for the various organisms, and also of a minimum concentration. The minimum of oxygen for the anaerobic bacteria is nil. This is the definition of all anaerobic bacteria. The maximum concentration of oxygen varies with the species. Certain bacteria are known to be killed by very small

amounts of oxygen; others are less sensitive. There is enough free oxygen in the atmosphere to prevent the development of certain bacteria having purple pigment, but they multiply easily wherever there is a more limited supply of oxgyen. Their maximum of oxygen is only a little smaller than the concentration of oxygen in the atmosphere. Even the aerobic bacteria have their maximum of oxygen which is many times the amount of oxygen of the atmosphere. The following table gives the maximum concentration of oxygen for a few species. The oxygen content of the atmosphere is taken as 100.

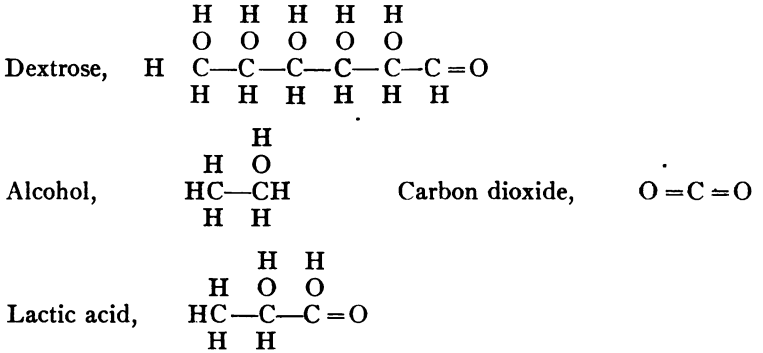
	Maximum Oxygen Tolerance
B. (Clostridium) butyricus,	1.35 per cent of atmospheric oxygen.
B. chauvei,	5.02
B. œdematis maligni,	3.25
Purple bacteria (Molisch), about	90
Thiosulphate bacteria (Nathansson), about	400
Pink yeast,	900
Penicillium glaucum, about	1700
B. prodigiosus,	3000

These numbers mean that *B. (Clostridium) butyricus* cannot live unless the atmosphere is diluted to about 1 per cent of its original content of oxygen, either by evacuation or by other gases. *B. prodigiosus* is able to live even if the air is compressed thirty times, but not more. The table demonstrates also that there is no natural line between anaerobic and aerobic bacteria, and a classification founded upon oxygen supply is as arbitrary as all classifications of organisms; but like all classifications, it is necessary for the designation of certain qualities of bacteria though a few species merge into the well-defined groups at both extremes.

The obligate anaerobic bacteria which tolerate only a very small amount of oxygen can adapt themselves to higher oxygen concentrations by a very slow increase of the oxygen pressure. It has also been claimed that occasionally the obligate anaerobic bacteria in pure culture will grow in air. It is known that these bacteria, if cultivated in an atmosphere with small amounts of oxygen, will use up the oxygen. In what form and how the oxygen is bound cannot be stated because the quantities in question are too small to be traced in the various products of metabolism.

The chemical changes instituted by anaerobic organisms are partly hydrolytic decompositions, partly intramolecular changes. Carbon

dioxide, hydrogen, and methane are produced sometimes by the same organism at the same time and from the same food compound. This appears unusual because these gases represent the ultimate products of oxidation and of reduction. The intramolecular changes caused by anaerobic processes result mainly in a change of the oxygen atoms of the food. One side of the molecule is reduced while the other side is oxidized, as in the alcoholic fermentation, which can take place without oxygen. In the sugar molecule, each carbon atom has one oxygen atom. In the products of fermentation, carbon dioxide has two oxygen atoms to one carbon atom, and in alcohol there is only one oxygen atom for two carbon atoms. In the lactic fermentation, the oxygen, which is distributed evenly in the sugar, is shifted to one side of the molecule in lactic acid.



These changes result in a liberation of energy which enables the organisms to continue their life process.

Some bacteria provide for oxygen by taking it from mineral compounds. Through the agency of certain microörganisms, nitrates are reduced to nitrogen and sulphates are reduced to hydrogen sulphide by a complete removal of the oxygen from the molecule.

$$Ca(NO_3)_2 - 5O = CaO + 2N$$
$$H_2SO_4 - 4O = H_2S$$

It seems that the opportunities for the development of obligate anaerobic organisms in nature are not very numerous. They may develop in the animal body, in the deeper layers of soil, and at the bottom of waters. They can also develop, however, on the surface of the soil and in other places where the air has free access, provided that some aerobic organisms

grow there at the same time. This peculiar association of aerobic and anaerobic organisms cannot be explained simply by complete exhaustion of the oxygen in the medium by the aerobic species; the latter do not remove the oxygen completely. No other completely satisfactory explanation can be given.

Of the facultative organisms, some prefer to grow in the presence of oxygen, like the yeasts, while others thrive better without air, as certain lactic bacteria. It has been doubted whether facultative organisms can multiply continuously without oxygen. The latest experiments with yeasts indicate that there is a limit to their anaerobic multiplication. They will develop for about 20 to 30 generations; they then need free oxygen again. With bacteria, however, the multiplication seems to have no limit in this particular.

Facultative organisms thrive without air only in the presence of certain food compounds, preferably carbohydrates. If they cannot get their energy by oxidation, they depend upon anaerobic fermentations, and their ability to ferment is naturally limited to a few compounds. *B. coli* can grow without air only in the presence of sugars; it is customary to test for the absence of sugar in broth by inoculating with *B. coli* a fermentation tube which has been filled with the broth. Growth in the closed arm indicates sugar; if there is growth only in the open arm, the broth is sugar-free. Other facultative bacteria may be able to destroy protein under anaerobic conditions, though experiments show that some of them lose the power of liquefying gelatin if grown without oxygen. Some of the facultative bacteria can provide for their oxygen by taking it from nitrates or sulphates.

It is interesting to compare the energy liberated by an aerobic and an anaerobic process. The total energy stored in an organic compound is measured by the amount of heat liberated by its complete combustion. One g. of dextrose produces 3750 calories, if burned to carbon dioxide and water. The plant producing this dextrose from carbon dioxide and water needs, therefore, 3750 calories for every g. made, which are taken from the radiant energy of the sun. The mold oxidizing 1 g. of dextrose completely gains in this process 3750 calories which may be used in form of chemical energy for its growth and for building up the complex compounds of cell life from small simply constructed molecules. If the mold has ceased growing, these 3750 calories will not be used but will produce a slight rise in the temperature of the nutrient medium. A yeast

fermenting the dextrose to alcohol and carbon dioxide does not use the entire energy of the dextrose; there is considerable available energy left in the alcohol; carbon dioxide contains no available energy. One g. of dextrose gives about 0.48 g. of alcohol and 0.52 g. of carbon dioxide. The heat of combustion of alcohol is 7183 calories per g. or 3476 calories for 0.48 g. The heat of combustion of carbon dioxide is nil. The dextrose before fermentation represents 3750 calories, the products of fermentation contain 3476 calories; the yeast therefore gains by the fermentative process only 247 calories from 1 g. of dextrose. This is a very small gain, compared with that of oxidation; the ratio is 274:3750 or 1:14. This means that a yeast, in order to get the same supply of energy as an oxidizing mold, has to ferment fourteen times as much sugar as the mold oxidizes.

A very good example of this is the different power of nitrogen fixation with aerobic and anaerobic bacteria. The aerobic *Azotobacter* fixes about 15 mg. of nitrogen for each g. of sugar, while the anaerobic *B. (Clostridium) butyricus* fixes only 2 mg. for the same amount of sugar, when this sugar is fermented to butyric and acetic acid, carbon dioxide and hydrogen. The nitrogen numbers indicate the rate of growth of aerobic and anaerobic organisms with the same amount of food.

Occasionally, attention is called to the enormous destructive power of microörganisms, the proportion of food to growth being entirely different from that of animals. One reason for this difference can be plainly seen from the above discussion. The higher animals oxidize their food almost completely and consequently need only a fraction of what a fermenting organism would require.

The oxygen requirements of protozoa have not been investigated until recently. It is probable that some parasitic protozoa can live and multiply without free oxygen for a considerable time.

Additional Remarks on Microbial Food.

Physiological Groups.—It is customary to divide the microörganisms into physiological groups according to the kind of food and the metabolic products formed. This is convenient and helpful in describing certain characters though the classification and nomenclature has been accomplished as far as possible with strictly morphological characteristics, as is the custom in all classification of plants and animals. The so-

called "sulphur bacteria" certainly belong to one physiological group which is very plainly defined by their ability to oxidize hydrogen sulphide to sulphur and sulphuric acid. The official nomenclature distributes them, however, into several genera. The "nitrate bacteria" are another group having a very definite physiological character. In some groups the morphological and physiological characters agree very largely, *e.g.*, in the butyric bacteria which are all spore-forming rods with a tendency to show spindle form, and in the *Azotobacter* group which is morphologically distinctly different from any other bacteria.

With some other more general terms like "lactic bacterium," "putrefying organism," "acid producer," the quality indicated is very vaguely expressed and therefore of little significance.

Another feature should be mentioned in discussing the relation of microörganisms and their food, namely the fact that some organisms prefer certain foods and live exclusively on a very few chemical compounds, being unable to assimilate any others, while other organisms are able to feed on nearly every organic substance. The nitrifying bacteria are unable to use anything but ammonium salts. Certain pathogenic bacteria require a very special medium. The invisible organisms cannot be cultivated on any medium except the living tissue. The fermenting yeasts can grow on protein media without sugar, though their development is meager. Some protozoa feed on many kinds of living bacteria, but cannot eat dead bacteria. Of the scavengers which can live on all kinds of food, the molds have many examples, living not only on protein, sugars, starch, cellulose, fat, but also able to exist on inferior food like alcohol, acetic or oxalic acids, with often no other nitrogen source than ammonium salt. Such omnivorous species are also found among bacteria, especially among sewage and soil bacteria.

Synthetic Media.—Recent investigations, especially by Gorham and his associates, of the physiology of microörganisms have shown that most organisms do not necessarily require media made from meat extracts, peptone and similar unknown compounds. A large number even of pathogenic bacteria which had been believed to specialize very particularly in their food requirements can be grown on synthetic media containing only compounds of well-known chemical composition, as amino-acids (asparagin, glycocoll), urea, ammonium salts of tartaric, succinic or lactic acids, dextrose, glycerin, and perhaps other organic substances, besides the necessary mineral salts. The great advantage of these media is that

they can always be made exactly alike, while meat extracts, peptones of various manufactures, and milk, vary in composition and cannot be considered as standard media. Besides, the microbiologist can follow the metabolic processes in synthetic media very easily, while it is impossible even to enumerate all the compounds contained in the ordinary nutrient gelatin, not to speak of a quantitative determination.

CHAPTER II.

PRODUCTS OF METABOLISM.

The Chemical Equations of Fermentations.

The metabolism of all organisms is considered to be a chemical process which follows in all respects the laws of chemistry. That we are not familiar with all the changes taking place in the cell is not because we are dealing with unknown forces, but simply because we do not know all the factors involved in the process. Some of the chemical changes caused by the living cell can be imitated exactly by the chemist in a test-tube. This may be illustrated by the oxidation of alcohol to acetic acid, the decomposition of urea to ammonium carbonate and of ammonia to nitrate. Some other processes are not as fully understood and not as easily imitated. The alcoholic and acid fermentations of sugars are of such nature. There is no reason to suppose, however, that these processes are other than chemical changes. A chemical process can always be expressed by a chemical equation, consequently the various known fermentations and decompositions caused by microörganisms should be represented by chemical equations.

This formulation is not always simple, because the greater number of microörganisms decompose organic substances in more than one way. Also, certain compounds may be produced in such small quantities as to escape the chemical analysis entirely, since the determination of many organic compounds is a very difficult task. Again, part of the decomposed material will usually be assimilated in the growth of the cells; hence more material disappears than can be accounted for by the fermentation products. There are several possibilities for discrepancies; accurate equations can be given only for the simplest fermentations, the products of which can be analyzed more or less exactly.

The best studied microbial process is the alcoholic fermentation, which is not only the classical example of fermentation, but also of great commercial importance. The simplest equation for the decomposition of dextrose into alcohol and carbon dioxide by yeast is

$$\underset{180}{C_6H_{12}O_6} = \underset{92}{2C_2H_5OH} + \underset{88}{2CO_2}$$

According to this formula, 100 parts of dextrose should give 51.11 parts of alcohol and 48.89 parts of carbon dioxide. The actual yield comes very close to these numbers, but does not reach them; the largest amounts found were 46–47.5 per cent of carbon dioxide and 47.5–48.67 per cent of alcohol. Under the most favorable conditions, the total yield of the products of fermentation was only 95 per cent of the theoretical yield.

Other products are formed besides the alcohol and carbon dioxide. The amount of glycerin found in fermented liquids varies very much with the conditions of fermentation; it reaches from 1.6 to 13.8 per cent of the alcohol or from 0.8 to 6.9 per cent of the fermented sugar. A small quantity of succinic acid is also formed, usually about 0.6 to 0.7 per cent of the fermented sugar. Traces of acetic acid and of lactic acid seem to be normal products of the process of fermentation. All of these compounds have been regarded as products resulting from the regular fermentation, but the latest investigations seem to indicate that glycerin and succinic acid are produced by yeast cells even in the absence of sugar. This discovery makes it probable that the glycerin and succinic acid are derived from the reserve substances of the yeast cells, such as lecithin, and are not direct products of fermentation. This accounts also for the variation of the proportion between alcohol and glycerin.

Similar are the experiences with the lactic fermentation which has been studied almost as extensively as alcoholic fermentation. If it is supposed that the formation of lactic acid follows the equation

$$\underset{\text{Lactose}}{C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}} + H_2O = \underset{\text{Lactic acid}}{4C_3H_6O_3}$$
$$342 \qquad 18 \qquad 360$$

the actual yield of acid is found to be between 90 per cent and 98 per cent of the theoretical. The other 2–10 per cent are either used for cell-growth or for products which thus far have escaped chemical determination. Small discrepancies will also be found in the fermentation of urea and in the nitrifying process, where small amounts of the nitrogenous material are used for the cell-growth.

Another difficulty in finding the chemical equation of a microbial fermentation is the fact that this process may change with the age of the culture. In those fermentations where several gases, as carbon dioxide and hydrogen, are produced, the relative proportion of the two is not at all constant. In the butyric fermentation of dextrose by *B. amylozyma*,

Perdrix found the relation of hydrogen to carbon dioxide to be at first 65:35, later 52:48, and the relation of butyric to acetic acid 26:74, and later 85:15. Perdrix tries to account for this change by assuming three different phases of the process at various ages of the cultures, represented by the following equations:

First stage: $56\underset{\text{Dextrose}}{C_6H_{12}O_6} + 42H_2O = 116H_2 + 114CO_2 + 30\underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_3COOH} + 36\underset{\text{Butyric acid}}{CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH}.$

Second stage: $46C_6H_{12}O_6 + 18H_2O = 112H_2 + 94CO_2 + 15CH_3COOH + 38CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH.$

Third stage: $C_6H_{12}O_6 = 2H_2 + 2CO_2 + CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH.$

It does not seem very probable that the protoplasm of the butyric organism takes up 56 dextrose molecules at once and changes their molecular structures. It is possible that the hydrogen, the carbonic acid, and the organic acids are produced by three or four different processes taking place at once in the same cell independent of each other, and that by certain influences the one is favored, the other checked. But there is no proof for such a theory.

v In fermentations where acid is produced, it will naturally make a very great difference whether this acid is neutralized or not. All organisms are retarded by their own products, and the acid-producing bacteria often give rise to so much acid that it kills them. The neutralization of the free acid will permit them to make more acid. Oxalic acid is produced in large quantities by *Aspergillus niger* if calcium carbonate is present to neutralize the acid. Without calcium carbonate, only about one-sixth of the amount of acid is produced. In some instances the acidity or alkalinity of the medium may also have a decided influence upon the nature of the products of fermentation. The proportion of acids and alcohols in butyric fermentation is said to be altered materially by the addition of calcium carbonate.

Other complications occur when an organism is able to use its own products as food, as is the case with some acetic bacteria. They will at first produce considerable amounts of acetic acid and after a while they oxidize the acid completely. It becomes impossible to account for microbial activity by a chemical equation when several organic compounds are decomposed at the same time as is found to occur in some foods, as butter, cheese, ensilage and in sewage. It is also impossible to formulate

exactly decompositions which are caused by mixed cultures. The complications become so great and the relations between different organisms are so little known that it is useless to make the attempt.

Physiological Variations.

The great variability of microörganisms in morphological respects has already been pointed out in Part I of this book. A similar variation and adaptation are noticed in their physiology, especially with the food substances of bacteria and consequently with their metabolic products. Microörganisms change their physiological properties very readily with the environment; the new variety may keep its acquired properties for some time even if brought back to the original conditions. It is stated frequently that microörganisms tend more toward variations than the more complex organisms. It should be considered, however, that the experiences in the variations of green plants and animals are based on individuals, while in the case of microörganisms these experiences are gained almost always from millions of cells. A simple illustration is the development of bacteria in salt solutions. If a broth culture of *B. coli* is transferred into broth containing 8 per cent of salt, a large number of cells will die, often more than 99 per cent. The surviving bacteria begin to multiply after a certain length of time and a new variety is created which can tolerate the salt. At first, only about one out of one hundred cells had the power to tolerate salt, but, since the dying cells are not usually counted or considered at all, it is customary to say that bacteria easily adapt themselves to an 8 per cent salt solution. If only one single plant out of one hundred could be adapted to a certain high temperature, it could not be said that it adapts itself easily. This mistake is quite commonly made with microörganisms.

The best illustration for the variability of cultivated microörganisms is the enormous number of varieties of *Saccharomyces cerevisiæ*. Nearly every large brewery has a yeast type of its own which differs from others by the amount of alcohol and aromatic substances produced, by time and optimum temperature of spore-production, by the appearance of the budding yeast in the hanging drop, and also in other respects. The cultivated organisms are not alone in showing this tendency toward variation. The transferring of a soil or water bacterium into the ordinary laboratory media is a complete change of conditions; the different cells of the same

species may react differently and give several varieties. A lactic bacterium on meat media without sugar does not thrive well in the first generations, but it gradually becomes able to grow on this medium. By this treatment, it loses gradually the power of producing acid and does not thrive as well in milk. The attenuation of pathogenic bacteria by cultivation on media, as potato, very different from the blood and muscle upon which they grow most naturally, or by growing them at low temperature, or above the maximum, furnishes another example. The decrease and finally the entire loss of pathogenicity is caused by a change of metabolism, by a loss of the power to produce toxin.

As by certain diet the metabolism can be changed, so certain physiological properties of bacteria can, by proper cultivation, be increased. By the frequent transferring of an organism on gelatin, its liquefying qualities can be increased, provided it had some at the start. By continued passing of a bacterium through an animal, its virulence can be increased. Strains of bacteria which will produce a very high acidity can be bred; this is illustrated by the quick-vinegar process and by the strong alcohol-producing yeasts of the distillery process. It is also possible to accustom microörganisms to certain chemicals which are antiseptic for the ordinary strains. Distillery yeast is by careful breeding acclimatized to tolerate a very high degree of acidity which would kill an ordinarily bred yeast. By continued cultivation of an organism upon a certain medium, it will become so acclimatized that it degenerates readily when the conditions become unfavorable. Such high-bred strains of microörganisms are used in alcoholic and lactic fermentation, in pathogenic bacteriology and in the inoculation of leguminous plants with nitrogen-fixing bacteria.

Products from Nitrogen-free Compounds.

The decomposition products of nitrogen-free organic compounds will be taken up in the same order as was done with the food substances, beginning with the most complex carbohydrates.

Cellulose is attacked by many molds, but little is known about the products. Probably they oxidize it completely to carbon dioxide and water.

$$(C_6H_{10}O_5)n + 12nO = 6nCO_2 + 5nH_2O$$

Some bacteria, as *B. ferrugineus* (van Iterson) and a few denitrifying bacteria, can use cellulose as organic food material; cellulose in soils is

known to favor denitrification. The best studied decompositions of cellulose are the two anaerobic fermentations, generally distinguished as methane and hydrogen fermentation. The "methane" and the "hydrogen" bacillus usually are found together; pure cultures have not been obtained as yet though the two organisms can be separated from each other. The so-called hydrogen fermentation of cellulose is caused by a thin, slender rod, producing spores at the end of the cell, some of which have drumstick forms. The products of this destruction of cellulose are acetic and butyric acid, probably a little valeric acid, carbon dioxide, and hydrogen. The mixture of gases contains at first more than 80 per cent of hydrogen, at a later stage it contains only 4.5 per cent hydrogen, and the remainder carbon dioxide.

The "methane" bacillus, which looks very much like the "hydrogen" bacillus, gives mainly acetic acid with a little butyric acid, while carbon dioxide and methane escape. The amount of methane is at first about 75 per cent of the total gas, but soon drops to about 30 per cent. The marsh gas in the mud of marshes, lakes, and other waters is formed by this organism.

STARCH is decomposed in many different ways. It may be oxidized completely like cellulose to carbon dioxide and water. The same chemical equation applies to this process. Some molds and some bacteria will change the starch to various acids (lactic, acetic, oxalic, etc.) or to alcohol and carbon dioxide. In every instance, the starch is converted first into sugar, and then the sugar is fermented. The starch is not fermented directly, since it is insoluble. (The fermentations of sugar are dealt with in the next paragraph.) Dextrins are in all respects similar to starch and are also converted into soluble sugars before being fermented. Those organisms which cannot break up the starch or dextrin molecule to sugar cannot use it as food.

SUGARS can be decomposed in several different ways. Some fermentations have been studied much in detail, especially those of commercial importance; others are known to some extent, but no special effort has been made to determine all products quantitatively, consequently the equations of these fermentations cannot be exactly given.

The alcoholic fermentation by yeasts with its by-products has been discussed so extensively in the paragraph above that there is little to be added. Among the molds, the species of *Mucor* are the best-known alcohol producers; nearly all mucors have this quality and some of them,

imported from eastern Asia, in such a high degree that they are used for the production of industrial alcohol since they have also, unlike the yeasts, the quality of converting starch. These molds were first called "*Amylomyces*" though the more modern classification put them in the genus *Rhizopus*. Among the *Aspergillaceæ*, *Aspergillus oryzæ* is the only species which is materially concerned in the production of alcohol. It is found in the fermentation of Japanese rice-brandy, called "Sake," and has been tried in Europe as a substitute for malt to change starch into fermentable sugars. Since these molds make alcohol mainly in the absence of oxygen, when the cells are spherical (gemmæ) and look like budding yeasts, it was believed for some time that yeasts were only a certain stage of development of the mucor molds. Alcohol, along with other compounds, is also formed by certain bacteria, though in small quantities and not as the only product; this is true in the butyric fermentation, and in gassy fermentations.

Alcohols other than ethyl alcohol are produced by several organisms. Methyl alcohol (HCH_2OH) is found to be produced by *B. boöcopricus* from cow-dung. Butyl alcohol ($CH_3(CH_2)_2CHOH$) is a common product in the butyric fermentation. *B. amylozyma* makes amyl alcohol [$CH_3(CH_2)_3CH_2OH$] under certain conditions, and it is probable that the fusel oil, the by-product of alcoholic fermentation in distilleries, is not formed by the yeast, but by some anaerobic organisms developing in the fermenting pulps. The use of pure cultures for the production of fusel oil, especially amyl alcohol, has been suggested.

Besides alcohol, organic acids are very commonly produced from sugar by many bacteria, yeasts and molds. The acid fermentations have wide practical application, and much attention has been paid to their study. If, however, our knowledge, especially of the quantitative relations between food and products, is limited, this is largely due to the great variability of the organisms and the difficulty of analysis.

The best known, because the simplest, fermentation, is the pure lactic fermentation which has already been discussed on page 102; it is very nearly represented by the equation

$$\underset{\text{Dextrose}}{C_6H_{12}O_6} = 2\underset{\text{Lactic acid}}{CH_3CH(OH)COOH}$$

The bacteria which cause this fermentation are called true lactic bacteria. They are the main acid producers in milk. Other acid producers form gas besides lactic acid or other acids or alcohol. In

the group of gas-producing lactics, *B. coli* and *Bact. aerogenes* are the main representatives. The fermentation of dextrose by *B. coli* is very nearly described by the equation

$$\underset{\text{Dextrose}}{2C_6H_{12}O_6} + H_2O = \underset{\text{Lactic acid}}{2C_3H_6O_3} + \underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_3COOH} + \underset{\text{Alcohol}}{C_2H_5OH} + 2CO_2 + 2H_2$$

A certain group of bacteria, including the *Bact. aerogenes*, the *Strept pneumoniæ*, and *B. typhosus*, cause fermentations which are very similar to the one above. The products depend not only upon the species but also upon the fermented sugar. Grimbert found that *B. coli* makes acetic acid from all fermentable sugars, but lactic acid only from dextrose, while with all the other sugars, succinic acid is formed instead of lactic acid. *B. typhosus* gives no succinic acid, but always lactic and acetic acid, often also butyric acid. The mechanism of these fermentations is apparently not as simple as that of the alcoholic and the true lactic fermentation. The greatest difficulty for the physiologist is the change of products during the fermentation; at first one, later another product predominates, consequently an attempt to give a certain definite equation of the fermentation is frustrated. It is more convenient merely to enumerate all products than to give an equation which may hold true only with a certain stage of growth of a single variety under one set of conditions, without giving any guarantee that other strains under different conditions will give even approximately the same kinds and quantities of products.

In this group of gas- and acid-forming bacteria, we find a number of organisms of practical importance. They are the organisms of the fermentation of sauerkraut, dill pickles, brine pickles, ensilage. There are further *B. coli* and a number of pathogenic bacteria, *B. typhosus*, and the varieties of the *Strept. pneumoniæ*. The standard products are acetic acid and alcohol, besides carbon dioxide and hydrogen; lactic acid is usually, succinic acid often, produced. The products depend upon the fermented sugar, the amount of oxygen present, temperature, the presence of neutralizing agents and possibly some unknown factors.

Acetic acid is, besides the lactic acid, the most common acid formed by microörganisms. Formic acid (HCOOH) is produced by a very few bacteria (*B. ethaceticus*, page 111) and occasionally by some molds, while acetic acid is a very common product of fermentation. In the decomposition of sugars, it is never the only product; other acids, gases or alcohols are formed besides acetic acid. Pure acetic acid is produced

only in acetic fermentations, not from sugar, but from alcohol, by a very simple process of oxidation.

$$\underset{\text{Alcohol}}{CH_3CH_2OH} + 2O = \underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_3COOH} + H_2O$$

If there is not plenty of air present, the oxidation may not become complete and small amounts of acetaldehyde may form.

$$\underset{\text{Alcohol}}{CH_3CH_2OH} + O = \underset{\text{Aldehyde}}{CH_3COH} + H_2O$$

Some acetic bacteria can destroy acetic acid by oxidizing it completely

$$CH_3COOH + 4O = 2CO_2 + 2H_2O$$

Molds frequently form acetic acid from sugar or starch; the peculiar acid taste of moldy fruit preserves is due partly to this acid.

Another product of fermentation of sugars which has been mentioned already in various places, is butyric acid ($CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH$). It has the very pungent odor of rancid butter. Butyric acid is formed not only from carbohydrates, but also from butter fat and from proteins. The production from cellulose has been discussed at the beginning of this chapter. The difficulty of giving an equation for butyric fermentation of dextrose has been pointed out in the chapter on chemical equations. Butyric acid is, like acetic acid, not the only product of fermentation. It is always accompanied by other acids and alcohols. The butyric bacteria are distinguished and named according to the predominating products of fermentation. They were known as *B.* (*Clostridium*) *butyricus*, *B. butylicus*, *B. lactobutyricus* and *B. lactopropylbutyricus*. Recent investigations of Bredemann have made it probable, however, that most of these bacteria are only varieties of the same species. The amounts of the different acids and alcohols formed by one strain vary with varying conditions so much that a dominance of the one or the other product cannot be used for diagnostic purposes. Butyric acid is also produced from lactic acid and from glycerin. These fermentations have a theoretical interest, because they represent a synthesis by bacteria; glycerin or lactic acid, with three carbon atoms, are changed to butyric acid with four carbon atoms.

In the decomposition of sugars by bacteria, mainly monobasic acids are formed; lactic, acetic and butyric acids are predominant, though occasionally succinic acid is also found. Yeasts change the sugar to alcohol and carbon dioxide almost exclusively. The mycoderma

species are able to produce a little acid. The most characteristic quality of molds is their great oxidizing power which enables them to use many different kinds of organic substances for food. Besides this oxidizing quality, they have also the power of causing acid fermentation or alcoholic fermentation. The acids produced by molds are mostly di- and tribasic. Besides the acetic acid, oxalic and citric acids are produced by molds. Oxalic acid is formed, especially by the *Aspergillaceæ*, in large quantities, if some alkali, like calcium carbonate, is present to neutralize the free acid. *Aspergillus niger*, the typical oxalic-acid mold, is supposed to oxidize dextrose according to the following equation:

$$C_6H_{12}O_6+9O=3(COOH)_2+3H_2O$$

The yield of oxalic acid is, however, only one-half of what could be expected from the above equation, because of the very pronounced oxidizing qualities of this mold; it will oxidize part of the dextrose, or of the acid, completely to carbon dioxide and water. If the acid is not neutralized, the mold will finally oxidize all the oxalic acid to carbon dioxide and water.

Citric acid ($CH_2(COOH)COH(COOH)CH_2COOH$) is formed by many molds. Some of them produce it in such quantities as to render possible the manufacture of citric acid from glucose by the use of molds. The process can be expressed by the following equation:

$$C_6H_{12}O_6+3O=C_6H_8O_7+2H_2O$$

The mold uses, however, about twice as much sugar as would be expected from this formula, because of its strong oxidizing power.

This discussion involving the products of the decomposition of sugars is far from complete, but aims to touch the most common fermentations.

Alcohols.—Besides the carbohydrates, another group of food substances has to be mentioned which is closely related to the sugars, namely the higher *alcohols*. The two main representatives are mannit ($CH_2OH.CHOH.CHOH.CHOH.CHOH.CH_2OH$) and glycerin ($CH_2OH.CHOH.CH_2OH$). Mannit differs from the simplest sugars only by having two additional hydrogen atoms which indicates that the aldehyde or ketone group of the sugar is changed into an alcohol group in the mannit. The products of mannit fermentation are very similar to those of sugar fermentations. Different organisms give different products among which alcohol and acetic acid prevail. The *Strept. pneumoniæ* decomposes it in the following way:

$$\underset{\text{Mannit}}{6C_6H_{14}O_6} + H_2O = \underset{\text{Alcohol}}{9C_2H_5OH} + \underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{4CH_3COOH} + 10CO_2 + 8H_2$$

while the *B. ethaceticus* makes formic acid instead of hydrogen.

$$3C_6H_{14}O_6 + H_2O = 5C_2H_5OH + CH_3COOH + CO_2 + 5HCOOH$$

Glycerin is decomposed in many ways. It may be oxidized completely or it is fermented into the same products which are derived from sugars. The butyric fermentation of glycerin has already been mentioned. There are also some compounds formed from glycerin which are not found in carbohydrate decomposition. These are the products of partial oxidation, glyceric aldehyde and glyceric acid

CH_2OH	CH_2OH	CH_2OH
|	|	|
$CHOH$	$CHOH$	$CHOH$
|	|	|
CH_2OH	COH	$COOH$
Glycerin	Aldehyde	Acid

The only monovalent alcohol of general occurrence, ethyl alcohol, undergoes only one method of decomposition, namely that of oxidation. This may be incomplete resulting in aldehyde or acetic acid (page 109) or if the combustion is total, in carbon dioxide and water. The acetic-acid formation is the result of the acetic bacteria. Total combustion is characteristic of molds and *Mycodermæ*.

ORGANIC ACIDS are valuable food for many microörganisms, in the free form as well as in the form of salts. On acid liquids like fruit juices and jellies, sour milk, sauerkraut, pickle brine, a flora of acidophile organisms develops, among which the molds of the *Oidium* type and the *Mycodermæ* predominate, while bacteria are found in insignificant numbers. These acidophile organisms destroy organic acids, especially lactic and acetic acid, by total combustion. The oxidation process for lactic acid would be

$$C_3H_6O_3 + 6O = 3CO_2 + 3H_2O$$

For all other acids, the equation is very similar. Some acids are fermented by bacteria by processes more or less similar to sugar fermentations. There are so many different possibilities that only a few examples can be mentioned. *B. tartaricus* decomposes tartaric acid to acetic and succinic acid. The same organism can also ferment succinic acid,

the products of which have not yet been analyzed. The calcium salt of lactic acid gives with *B. butylicus* butyric acid with a little acetic acid.

FATS are esters of glycerin with fatty acids. They can be hydrolyzed, like all esters, and thus give free acids and glycerin. The following equation shows the hydrolyzation (saponification) of tristearin:

$$\begin{array}{l} (C_{18}H_{35}O_2)-CH_2+H_2O \\ \quad\quad\quad\quad | \\ (C_{18}H_{35}O_2)-CH\ +H_2O \\ \quad\quad\quad\quad | \\ (C_{18}H_{35}O_2)-CH_2+H_2O \end{array} = \begin{array}{l} C_{18}H_{35}O_2H\ \ CH_2OH \\ \quad\quad\quad\quad\quad\quad | \\ C_{18}H_{35}O_2H+CHOH \\ \quad\quad\quad\quad\quad\quad | \\ C_{18}H_{35}O_2H\ \ CH_2OH \end{array}$$

Tristearin — Stearic acid — Glycerin

Only a few microögranisms are able to decompose fat to glycerin and fatty acids, and these appear to be the only organisms which can destroy fat. This saponification is the only known method of fat decomposition. After this first step is accomplished, the glycerin and acids are open to decomposition by the methods described above, either by complete combustion or otherwise. The most significant change, perhaps, in the decomposition of fat is a production of free acids from the neutral fat molecule.

There are still a few compounds occurring in nature which should be considered, inasmuch as they are products of bacterial activity, and are more or less constantly forming. The most important ones are methane and hydrogen. Both of these gases are used by certain bacteria in a very unusual metabolism as a source of energy.

B. methanicus (or *B. oligocarbophilus*) oxidizes methane completely.

$$CH_4+4O=CO_2+2H_2O$$

This organism requires no other organic food. It is retarded or inhibited by organic substances since it takes the carbon only in form of methane or carbon dioxide and the nitrogen only in mineral form as nitrate or ammonia. In its life requirements, it resembles very much the nitrate and sulphur bacteria. This bacillus is also able to oxidize carbon monoxide to dioxide and to get all the necessary food and energy supply in this way.

The "hydrogen" bacterium is called *B. pantothropus* by its discoverer because it is able to live on ordinary laboratory media as well. If no other substance is available, it will oxidize hydrogen. This oxidation does not occur directly, as would be expected, following the equation

$$H_2+O=H_2O$$

but it requires the presence of carbon dioxide, which is reduced by the hydrogen to formaldehyde.

$$CO_2 + 4H = HCOH + H_2O.$$

The formaldehyde is then used by this bacillus as a food and oxidized.

$$HCOH + 2O = CO_2 + H_2O$$

The presence of traces of formaldehyde in the cultures can easily be proved.

Products from Nitrogenous Compounds.

The products resulting from microbial action upon nitrogenous compounds are largely unknown or poorly defined. They are very numerous and many of them are of such complex nature that they cannot be determined accurately; even the testing for their presence or absence is often very difficult. It is therefore utterly impossible and quite unnecessary to mention even all the known products and the equations of their formation. The aim is to give a thorough understanding of the gradual degradation of the protein molecules to smaller molecules of less complex nature, until finally crystallizing bodies are reached. These are well-defined chemical bodies and the further decompositions can be followed more exactly by chemical methods.

As in the preceding chapter, the most complex compounds will be discussed first. The keratin bodies of hair, epidermis, horn, are absolutely insoluble and only very few organisms can attack them. The products have been studied but very little and do not seem to differ essentially from the cleavage products of protein bodies.

Protein bodies are as numerous as plants and animals. Each species of organism seems to have its particular protein which differs from that of other species. With the more highly developed organisms, there are several distinctly different proteins found in the same individual in different parts of the body. The chemical structure of the protein molecule is not known. The constituents, carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and sometimes sulphur and phosphorus can be determined in their relative amounts without, however, furnishing any knowledge of the structure of the molecule. The molecular weight of proteins is estimated to be at least 10,000, while the weight of the very large molecule of saccharose is only 342. The protein molecule can be broken up into smaller

molecules. This is generally believed to be a hydrolytic process similar to the decomposition of starch to maltose, or of saccharose into dextrose and levulose. The first products of protein decomposition do not differ essentially from the original protein, but they can be hydrolyzed again and again, until finally products of crystalline nature are found which are well-defined chemical bodies. Among the very first products of protein degradation it is usually impossible to determine single compounds, but several groups of compounds may be separated by certain precipitants, as acetic acid, ammonium sulphate, zinc sulphate, copper sulphate, tannic acid and others. In order to determine the degree of protein degradation, *e.g.*, in the analysis of cheese, it is customary to determine the nitrogen of compounds precipitated by these various reagents, and state it in percentage of the total nitrogen. Thus the terms "water-soluble nitrogen," "acid-soluble nitrogen" and others originated, meaning the nitrogen of the compounds soluble in water or in acid respectively. Some of these groups of degradation products have been named and defined more accurately, of which the albumoses and peptones are the most common and best described compounds. Their chemical nature and structure is, however, just as little known as that of the protein bodies.

The amino-acids are the first well-known compounds of protein decomposition. They are organic acids, in which a hydrogen atom is substituted by a NH_2 radical. Some of them are simple compounds, as the amino acetic acid NH_2CH_2COOH and also the amino-capronic acid, usually called leucin, $(CH_3)_2CH\ CH_2\ CH(NH_2)\ COOH$. Others are of a more complex nature, such as the tyrosin or hydroxy-phenyl-amino-propionic acid, $C_6H_4(OH)\ CH_2CH\ (NH_2)\ COOH$, and the tryptophan or indol-amino-propionic acid, $C_8H_6N\ CH_2CH(NH_2)\ COOH$.

Of other nitrogenous products which are not amino-acids, a few are of striking significance. The very disagreeable odor of putrefying proteins and of excreta is due to indol (C_8H_7N) and methyl-indol or skatol ($C_8H_6N\ CH_3$). Indol gives a rose color with nitrites in acid solution, and this convenient reagent is used in the identification of bacteria. Another group are the amins, hydrocarbons in which one or several hydrogen atoms are replaced by an NH_2 radical. The simplest amins are the methyl-amins, of which the tri-methylamin $(CH_3)_3N$ is produced by several bacteria. The fishy odor of the brine of salted herring is largely due to this compound. In this group belong also a large number of the so-called *ptomains*.

The ptomains (p. 417) are alkaloid-like bodies of basic character and of more or less well-known structure. Some of them are notorious for being very strong poisons, while others are quite harmless. These bodies are usually called ptomains because they were first discovered in putrefying corpses. The best-known compounds of this character are the putrescin or tetra-methylen diamin [$NH_2(CH_2)_4NH_2$] and the cadaverin or penta-methylen diamin [$NH_2(CH_2)_5NH_2$], which can scarcely be considered poisonous. The methyl-guanidin

$$HN=C\begin{matrix}NH_2\\ \diagdown\\ NHCH_3\end{matrix}$$

may be mentioned as an example of a very poisonous ptomain. Another poisonous ptomain is the neurin $CH_2=CH—N(CH_3)_3OH$ which has been found frequently as a product of putrefaction.

All the products of protein degradation mentioned so far may be formed in the absence of oxygen. The decomposition of protein to amino-acids is partly hydrolytic, and probably it consists also of intramolecular changes comparable to the alcoholic and lactic fermentations. None of the processes mentioned so far requires oxygen. Even the amino-acids can be hydrolyzed further under anaerobic conditions, forming ammonia and hydroxy-acids.

$$HOH+\underset{\text{Amino-acetic acid}}{NH_2CH_2COOH}=NH_3+\underset{\text{Hydroxy-acetic acid}}{HOCH_2COOH}$$

In this way, ammonia is formed quite commonly from amino-acids.

In the products of protein degradation mentioned above only those compounds have been considered which contain nitrogen. It is quite evident, however, that in the cleavage of the large and complex protein molecules, certain pieces of the broken molecule will contain no nitrogen. An example of how such nitrogen-free compounds might be formed is given in the hydrolysis of amino-acetic acid to hydroxy-acetic acid. Many organic acids, like acetic, butyric, capronic, benzoic and phenylacetic acids are quite generally found among the products of putrefaction. Alcohols too, especially benzene derivatives like phenol and cresol, are not unusual at all. Gas is often formed in putrefaction, especially carbon dioxide and hydrogen; occasionally these gases are mixed with traces of nitrogen and methane. Carbon dioxide is formed to some extent by the hydrolysis of organic acids, as the following example shows:

$$C_6H_4<\begin{matrix}OH.\\CH_2.COOH\end{matrix}+HOH=C_6H_4<\begin{matrix}OH\\CH_3\end{matrix}+CO_2+H_2O$$

Hydroxy-phenyl-acetic acid — Cresol

The formation of hydrogen, methane, and nitrogen is not as easily explained and probably means a more complicated change of the molecule than a simple hydrolysis.

Many protein compounds contain, besides the organic elements, carbon, oxygen, hydrogen and nitrogen, larger or smaller amounts of phosphorus and sulphur. The phosphorus compounds may be changed to phosphine (PH_3), which is a gas of a strong disagreeable garlic odor. Generally, however, the phosphorus of protein after its degradation is found as phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4). Very little is known about the phosphorus of organic compounds and the changes it may undergo in the putrefaction process.

The sulphur of proteins is commonly changed to hydrogen sulphide (H_2S). This may be the result of a hydrolytic cleavage or of a reducing process. Some microörganisms are able to form mercaptan (CH_3SH), a compound of very foul penetrating odor.

The production of all these compounds may take place under strictly anaerobic conditions. Hydrolysis and intramolecular rearrangements of the atoms within the molecule suffice to account for these changes. The products of this anaerobic decomposition are mainly ammonia, amins, amino-acids, alcohols (phenol), acids (acetic, butyric, capronic), hydroxy-acids, phosphoric acid, hydrogen sulphide. Many microbiologists emphasize the distinction between the putrefaction as an anaerobic process, and the decay as an aerobic process. The anaerobic putrefaction produces offensive odors caused by indol, skatol, butyric and capronic acids, amins, phenol, and hydrogen sulphide, while the aerobic decay does not show such products. This distinction between putrefaction and decay is an artificial one, however, and cannot always be carried through. Facultative anaerobes will decompose proteins in different ways with air and without, and in nature both processes usually take place at once. It has been mentioned in the chapter on oxygen requirements that many obligate anaerobes can grow exposed to the air if at the same time some aerobic organisms develop in the same medium. This is the case in most of the decompositions occurring in soil, in the dead leaves of the forests, in manure piles, in spoiling foods.

If oxygen has free admittance to the decomposing protein, the above

mentioned products will be readily oxidized to simpler compounds and finally to carbon dioxide, water, ammonia; the ammonia may be oxidized further to nitrous or nitric acid, as has been mentioned already in several chapters. The final oxidation of the carbon compounds is the complete combustion, accomplished at once, or in successive steps by different organisms. Hydrogen sulphide is oxidized to sulphur or sulphuric acid. Thus we obtain as the final products of protein degradation carbon dioxide, water, ammonia, nitrates, nitrogen, hydrogen, hydrogen sulphide, sulphuric acid, phosphoric acid. The protein is completely mineralized.

UREA, URIC ACID, HIPPURIC ACID are the products of protein digestion in the animal body. Urea is a normal product in the urine of many animals, especially the carnivora, while hippuric acid is produced mainly by herbivora and uric acid is one of the main constituents in the excreta of birds and snakes. The fermentation of urea to ammonium carbonate has been discussed extensively in the chapter on metabolism, page 85. It is a simple hydrolysis.

$$CO(NH_2)_2 + 2H_2O = CO_3(NH_4)_2.$$

Only one group of bacteria, the urea bacteria, can perform this change, a few molds are also said to cause this fermentation. Hippuric acid is of much more complex nature, benzoyl-amino-acetic acid. It is probably split up by bacteria into benzoic acid and amino-acetic acid

$$\underset{\text{Hippuric acid}}{C_6H_5\,CO.\,NH\,CH_2\,COOH} + HOH = \underset{\text{Benzoic acid}}{C_6H_5COOH} + \underset{\text{Amino-acetic acid}}{NH_2\,CH_2\,COOH}$$

Uric acid, also a complex organic body, can be oxidized through the agency of bacteria by several processes which yield ammonium carbonate and carbon dioxide. Often urea is an intermediate product forming in the following manner:

$$\underset{\text{Uric acid}}{C_5H_4N_4O_3} + 2H_2O + 3O = 2\underset{\text{Urea}}{CO(NH_2)_2} + 3CO_2$$

The decomposition of these three compounds takes place continuously in manure piles and in sewage. The final result is, as with proteins, a complete mineralization.

PRODUCTS FROM MINERAL COMPOUNDS.

Minerals are used by microörganisms for cell construction almost exclusively; consequently, they do not leave the living cell like fermentation products. But a few organisms can actually decompose mineral

matter and when this takes place mineral products are secreted. Two main processes can be distinguished, oxidation and reduction.

OXIDATIONS are the result of the organisms seeking a supply of energy. Several oxidations of minerals have been indicated previously, as the oxidation of ammonia to nitrites, of nitrites to nitrates, of hyposulphites to sulphates, of hydrogen sulphide to sulphur and of sulphur to sulphuric acid, of ferrous salts to ferric salts. All these microbial changes are simple processes and can be followed by chemical analyses much more easily than organic fermentations. The organisms which cause these changes do not thrive in organic substances and for this reason pure cultures can be obtained only with difficulty. Their activity is of great importance in soil fertility.

REDUCTIONS of minerals by organisms have not been discussed. They, too, are of great significance. As a typical example, nitrates may be reduced to nitrites, to ammonia, to nitrogen gas, and, rarely, to nitrogen oxides. The reduction may be performed either by the direct removal of oxygen, or by the formation of hydrogen. The reduction of nitrates to nitrites can be written in the following three ways:

$$KNO_3 - O = KNO_2$$
$$KNO_3 = KNO_2 + O$$
$$KNO_3 + 2H = KNO_2 + H_2O.$$

The result in all three cases is the same. Many bacteria can reduce nitrates to nitrites or to ammonia. A few can reduce them to nitrogen. These "true denitrifiers" are found in soil and in old manure. Their reducing process is as follows:

$$Ca(NO_3)_2 - 5O = CaO + 2N.$$

Nitrates are reduced through the efforts of the organism to secure a supply of oxygen. The denitrifying bacteria have strong oxidizing properties; they take oxygen from all sources possible. If cultures of denitrifying bacteria are well aerated, as in soils with a proper moisture content, they scarcely attack the nitrates, while they will reduce them in ordinary liquid cultures so fast that the escaping nitrogen gas forms a froth on top of the nitrate solution. Denitrifying bacteria need the oxygen to oxidize organic matter. They cannot live without organic food. It has been stated previously that the oxidation of ammonia to nitrates liberates energy, consequently the reduction of nitrates must absorb energy, and

nitrates can be reduced by the denitrifying bacteria only if they can use the oxygen to advantage; that is, if they can obtain by the oxidation of organic bodies more energy than they expend in the reduction of the nitrates. The same rule holds true with other reductions.

Sulphates are reduced in a very similar way to hydrogen sulphide

$$H_2SO_4 - 4O = H_2S.$$

Tap-water, containing calcium sulphate, often forms hydrogen sulphide if shut off from the air for some time.

While only a few bacteria reduce sulphates, many reduce sulphites or sulphur to hydrogen sulphide. The potassium and sodium salts of selenic and telluric acid (H_2SeO_4 and H_2TeO_4) are reduced by certain organisms and not by others. The reduction results in a colored precipitate; this reaction has been suggested as a diagnostic means to distinguish different species. The reduction of arsenious oxide to arsin (AsH_3) is used as a very delicate test for arsenic; it is applied in the detection of arsenical poisoning. The contents of the stomach are sterilized and inoculated with *Penicillium brevicaule* (p. 22), the "arsenic mold." This will reduce most arsenious compounds to arsin (As H_3) or to diethyl arsin, As $H(C_2H_5)_2$, both of which are easily recognized by their very pronounced garlic odor.

Unknown Products of Physiological Significance.

Among the products of microbial action, there are certain substances which must be mentioned because of their importance, though their quantity is insignificant compared with the ordinary products of fermentation. These substances can be divided into four groups: *pigments*, *aromatic compounds*, *enzymes*, and *toxins*. The chemical structure of pigments and of many aromatic substances is scarcely known; and as far as enzymes and toxins are concerned, it is not even determined whether or not they are of protein nature. The last two groups are known only by their actions, while the pigments are very conspicuous and cannot possibly be overlooked.

Pigments have naturally attracted the attention of microbiologists ever since pure cultures were known, and many investigators have tried to explain the nature and the meaning of pigments. All experiments concerning the purpose of pigment-formation by microörganisms have been

without results. It is not known that the pigment is of any material advantage to bacteria; for it is possible to cultivate colorless strains of pigment bacteria which grow apparently as well as the orginal pigmented culture. Again, pigments cannot take the place of the chlorophyl in plants except perhaps the *bacteriopurpurin* of the purple bacteria. It does not even protect the cells against intense light, because the pigmented organisms are not more resistant than the corresponding colorless "sports." The only exception are the colored spores of the molds, especially *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus*, which are very resistant to light, while the spores of *Oidium* are killed just as easily as the mycelium. Pigments cannot be considered as reserve substances, since many pigments are excreted and remain outside the colorless cells. Pigment production may be incidental. It is possible that the waste products of certain organisms happen to be colored.

After Beyerinck, the chromogenic bacteria may be divided into three classes:

1. *Chromophorous bacteria*, in which the pigment is placed in the cell and has a certain biological significance analogous to the chlorophyl of higher plants. In this division belong the green bacteria discovered by Van Tieghem and Engelmann and the red sulphur bacteria or purple bacteria.

2. *Chromoparous or true pigment-forming bacteria*, which set free the pigment as a useless excretion, either as a color-body or as a leuco-body which becomes colored through the action of atmospheric oxygen. The individuals themselves are colorless and may under certain conditions cease to form pigments. To this class belong *B. prodigiosus*, *Ps. Syncyanea*, *Ps. pyocyanea*, and others.

3. *Parachrome bacteria*, which form the pigment as an excretory product but retain it within their bodies, as *B. janthinus* and *B. violaceus*.

When the pigment is soluble in water, as those produced by *Ps. pyocyanea* and the fluorescent bacteria, it diffuses through the medium. When the pigment is not soluble, it either lies within the cell wall or between the individuals.

This classification furnishes some details concerning the methods of pigment production, which depends upon the presence of certain media; according to Sullivan, sometimes certain mineral salts, sometimes sugar will stimulate chromogenesis. The same is true with molds. Very brilliant colors appear with certain species of molds if grown on cellu-

lose or on fat, while on gelatin the pigment is not produced. The temperature is an important factor. A large number of chromogens produce no pigment when grown in the incubator. It is possible to obtain non-pigmentation with many species by propagating them through many generations at high temperatures. Oxygen also is necessary for the chromogenesis of many bacteria. Some need a short exposure to daylight in order to produce their pigment, while cultures grown in absolute darkness may remain colorless. Strong sunlight, however, will check pigment production in the same degree as do antiseptics and other harmful influences.

The chemical nature of microbial pigments is little known. They are distinguished according to the solubility in various liquids, water, alcohol,

FIG. 48.—Bacteriopurpurin, from a *Rhodospirillum*, crystallized from a chloroform solution. (*After Molisch.*)

ether, chloroform, benzol, and other solvents, and according to the change of color caused by acid and alkali (Fig. 48). A group of *carotin bodies*, named because of their similarity to the pigment of carrots, *the prodigiosin bodies*, named after *B. prodigiosus*, the fluorescent pigments and perhaps a few other groups are distinguished, but their chemical nature is rather vague as yet. The absorption of distinct lines of the spectrum by solutions of these pigments is claimed to be a very reliable means of distinguishing the pigments of different species.

AROMATIC SUBSTANCES constitute another group of metabolic products. The chemical analysis accomplishes more with these compounds than with pigments, since they are frequently well-known compounds.

The main difficulty arising in their identification is in the very minute quantities of the products available. Some substances with strong, mostly very disagreeable odors have already been mentioned: indol, skatol, hydrogen sulphide, mercaptan, the amins and ammonia, butyric acid, and some of the higher alcohols. There remain to be mentioned certain oils and esters giving rise largely to pleasant aromas. The formation of aromatic oils has been established although their nature is entirely unknown. The same is true with the esters. The substance causing the fishy flavor in butter is volatile with steam and is neither of an alkaline nor acid nature. The strong odor of freshly plowed earth is caused by an *Actinomyces;* the odor can be traced to a very volatile oil the nature of which has not been determined. The aroma of fermented liquids—wines, beers, and many others—is partly due to compounds constituting the fermenting material, and partly to the fermenting agent. Some yeasts are known to produce fruit-esters, as succinic-acid-ethylester and the corresponding esters of malic and other acids. Besides, some glucosides may be split and traces of hydrocyanic acid and benzoic acid may be liberated. The change of flavor with the aging of wines is probably more a chemical than a biochemical change.

ENZYMES AND TOXINS.—Among the most interesting and least understood products of microbial action are the *enzymes* and the *toxins.* These two groups are related in many respects. The enzymes will be discussed extensively in the following chapter and toxins are treated more extensively in Pt. III, Div. VII, Chap. II. Toxins and enzymes are formed by the cells in such small quantities that they would never have been discovered by ordinary chemical means were it not for the unusual effects which they produce, the enzymes acting upon food substances, and the toxins acting physiologically upon organisms. Toxins and enzymes are chemically unknown. It is assumed that they are chemical bodies, but even this has not been proved. A pure toxin has never been obtained and we have no criterion for its purity. The presence of a toxin is recognized only by an animal test, and in this way the comparative concentration can be determined approximately. Such standardization of toxin solutions is only comparative, however, and gives no clue as to the actual amount of toxin present. Not all animals are sensitive to all toxins. It is quite possible that all bacteria produce compounds with chemical qualities similar to toxins, and only a few of them happen to react upon men or animals.

Toxins are not always the product of microbial action. Vegetable toxins or *phytotoxins* are known, among which the ricin of the castor-oil bean is perhaps the most studied representative. The best-known *zoötoxin* is the rattlesnake poison. These non-microbial compounds have the same quality as the microbial toxins—they are extremely poisonous. Toxins are largely responsible for contagious diseases as diphtheria, tetanus and perhaps many others. If a culture of these organisms is filtered through a porcelain filter which removes all bacterial cells, the filtrate injected into an animal will cause the disease with all its accompanying symptoms though there are no microörganisms introduced into the animal body. If the filtrate is heated, however, no effect will take place after the injection, because heat destroys the toxin. The amount of toxin that will kill an animal is extremely small. 0.000005 mg. of the purest tetanus toxin will kill a mouse, 0.0007 mg. of ricin will kill a rabbit, less than 0.23 mg. of tetanus toxin will kill an adult man. The body of an animal or man forms an anti-body against the toxin which neutralizes its poisonous action. Anti-bodies are also formed against enzymes injected into an animal.

Toxins are very sensitive to heat. A short exposure to temperatures between 80° and 100° will inactivate them. They are also very sensitive to light. While some toxins are secreted, others are retained within the cells of microörganisms, and never leave them until the cells die or disintegrate. Ptomains, which are also metabolic products of microörganisms and sometimes cause poisoning, differ from the toxins in their resistance to heat and light (page 115). Ptomains differ in no way essentially from ordinary organic compounds; the animal or human body produces no anti-ptomains to counteract their poisonous effects. There is no chemical relation whatever between toxins and ptomains, and the physiological effects are also quite different, though they both cause poisoning.

Toxins are not essential products of the metabolism of pathogens. Strains of pathogenic bacteria can be bred which do not produce toxins as chromogens can be bred without pigment, or lactic bacteria which do not produce acid. The strains which lose their pathogenicity grow better on artificial media, but are less able to produce disease in the animal. They may regain the power of producing toxin if passed through the body of the animal. The real object of toxin production by microörganisms is not known; the microörganisms derive no apparent benefit

from the death of the animal; the toxin may be an incidental waste product like the pigment.

Rotation of Elements in Nature.

All organic matter on earth is undergoing continuous change. Organisms grow and decay. The same carbon and nitrogen atoms which constitute the organic world of to-day constituted it thousands of years ago. The amount of carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen and of all other elements of life on earth is limited, and the same atoms will be used for the future generations of life that constitute the present. There are two main features in organic life, construction (*anabolism*) and destruction (*katabolism*). Construction is mainly the task of green plants, enabled by the chlorophyl to use the energy of sunlight in building up organic substances from minerals, water and carbon dioxide. Destruction is caused mainly by animals and other organisms which have to break down organic matter in order to exist. These two factors keep the atoms of the organic world in perpetual rotation.

In this circulation of the elements it is necessary that all compounds of organic nature be decomposed finally to a form available for plant food. If this were not the case, the indestructible compound would sooner or later accumulate in such enormous quantities that the elements constituting this body would be removed entirely from general circulation. Let us suppose, as an illustration, that for some unknown reason, all urea bacteria on earth would die. Urea could be decomposed no more, and the plants, unable to use urea as a source of nitrogen in place of nitrates, would get but little benefit out of stable manure. All urea would pass gradually undecomposed into rivers, lakes, and finally into the ocean where it would accumulate continuously. The enormous quantities of nitrogen taken out of circulation would cause a decreasing growth of plants, and life would soon cease because of lack of nitrogen. For this reason all products of living organisms must be further broken up by some other organisms, and we find that the destructive work is to a large extent the task of microörganisms. Many products of organic life cannot be broken down by organisms other than bacteria, and therefore bacteria are absolutely necessary for the circulation of the elements and for life on earth. Bacteria and green plants are an absolute necessity for the maintenance of life, the one breaking down, the other building up,

one dependent upon the products of the other; animals, however, could be excluded from the circle without interfering with a continuation of life on earth.

CARBON CYCLE.—Carbon is the main element in organic nature, and so dominant that the term carbon compounds is practically identical with organic compounds.

Carbon is contained in the carbon dioxide of the air which is usually considered a mineral or inorganic compound. It is absorbed in this condition by the green plants, and is changed by the chlorophyl gran-

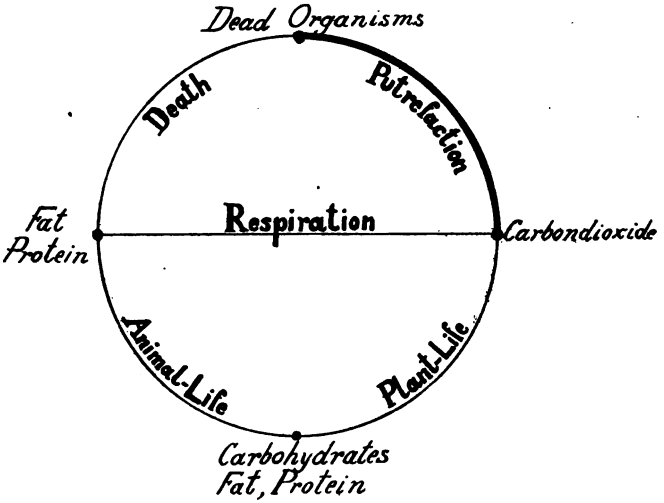


FIG. 49.—Carbon cycle. (Original.)

ules of the leaves to organic compounds of various types, either to carbohydrates (cellulose, starch, sugars) or to fats, or to protein substances, occasionally to organic acids or other compounds. The plants will either die and decay, or will be eaten by animals. In the first case, the decay will be caused exclusively by microörganisms; if the plants are eaten, they will be digested; part may be used to build up the animal body or stored as reserve substances, largely fat and protein. If the animal dies, a decomposition process will take place, which breaks down the organic compounds to simpler products and finally the carbon will be completely oxidized to carbon dioxide. Even the marsh-gas which might be liberated in this process will find organisms that oxidize it to

carbon dioxide and water. Every product will find an organism to break it up further until it is completely disorganized and the carbon atoms can start the same circulation anew. Undoubtedly as long as organic life has existed on earth, microörganisms have been present, in order to render the dead organic matter again available for plant and animal life. Figure 49 gives a schematic illustration of the carbon cycle; the microbial activity is marked by heavy lines.

NITROGEN CYCLE.—Nitrogen shows the same continuous change as carbon. Plants take up nitrogen in mineral form usually as nitrates.

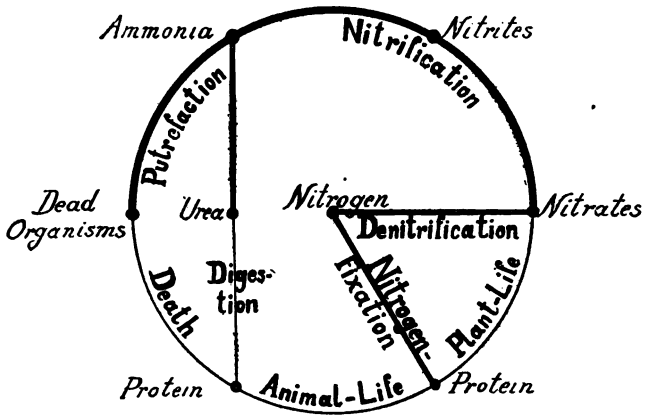


FIG. 50.—Nitrogen cycle. (Original.)

The plants change this mineral nitrogen to the most complex bodies, proteins, where it is combined with the other elements of organic nature. The plants may be eaten by animals; part of the protein is then digested to urea or hippuric or uric acid, which in turn are readily decomposed by microörganisms to ammonia (Fig. 50). Part of the protein will be stored in the growing animals, and if the animal dies, the body will decay or putrefy, and the nitrogenous compounds of that body will pass through the various stages of decomposition to the final product, ammonia. Ammonia is then oxidized to nitrites and nitrates, when the nitrogen cycle is completed.

There is, however, one discrepancy in this cycle. It has been mentioned already that some organisms are able to reduce nitrates to nitrogen gas. This is one of the "leaks" in the rotation of elements which would

be disastrous to organic life on earth if there were no means to compensate for the loss of nitrogen in circulation. Imagine what would happen if there were no such compensation! Part of the nitrate in the soil is destroyed, the nitrogen gas escapes into the air and is as indifferent as the nitrogen of the atmosphere, lost to organic life forever. More nitrate would be produced from decaying organic matter and would be destroyed. After a certain time, this continuous loss of nitrogen would become quite noticeable in the growth of plants; there would be a scarcity of nitrogen in soil, since part of it is lost continuously. Finally, the plants would cease to grow because the nitrogen in the soil would be exhausted.

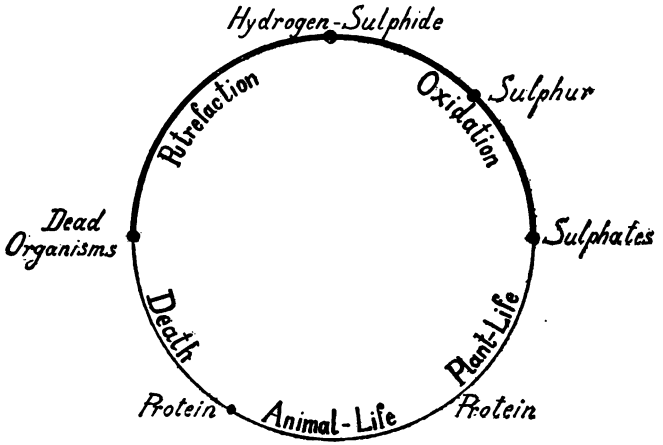


FIG. 51.—Sulphur cycle. (Original.)

The compensation for this destruction of available nitrogen is found in the nitrogen-fixing bacteria, which either living in symbiosis with leguminous plants or growing independently in the soil, have the power to use the atmospheric nitrogen for the formation of their own protoplasm. Thus, organic nitrogen is produced from nitrogen gas and the constancy of organic life is guaranteed.

SULPHUR CYCLE.—Little more can be said about sulphur, since the rotation is quite similar to that of nitrogen. Plants will take sulphur usually in the form of sulphates and make protein compounds containing a certain amount of sulphur (Fig. 51). These bodies are either digested by higher animals or broken down by putrefaction to the final

product, hydrogen sulphide, which is oxidized by the sulphur bacteria first to sulphur, then later to sulphates.

PHOSPHORUS CYCLE.—The cycle of phosphorus has not been worked out completely, but from the discussion in the last pages, it is plainly seen that a simple cycle very much like the ones above must exist. It is probably much simpler because phosphorus does not enter as easily into organic compounds as nitrogen.

PHYSICAL PRODUCTS OF METABOLISM.

PRODUCTION OF HEAT.—It has long been known that fermentation produces heat. The rise of temperature is usually not very great. In lactic fermentation it amounts to about 1°, in alcoholic fermentation to 2° or 3°, but in certain processes the heat liberated is considerable, as in the fermentation of manure, of ensilage, of vinegar, and in others.

The cause of heat formation is quite evident from the discussion on page 98. Organisms decompose organic matter which means a liberation of energy. Part of this energy is used for the continuation of life-processes; the rest, usually the larger part, is not employed and appears in the form of heat. The amount of heat produced can be measured directly with the thermometer if great care is taken that no heat is lost by radiation or by evaporation of water.

The best known fermentation of this character is the vinegar fermentation. In the quick-vinegar process (page 456) the temperature rises sometimes as high as 10° to 15° above the temperature of the room and the vinegar manufacturer uses the heat produced by the bacteria to keep the generators at the optimum temperature. If the process is not controlled carefully, the vinegar bacteria are likely to produce sufficient heat to kill themselves.

The heat produced in the fermentation of manure, especially horse manure, is used in the hot-beds to cultivate and force young plants. In the manure pile, great heat production is not desirable because high temperatures will volatilize the ammonia; the tight packing of manure which keeps out the oxygen will prevent too strong bacterial action. The highest temperature in silos which has been recorded is about 70°, but the best silage is secured by keeping the temperature below 50°. Ensilage fermentation is not thoroughly understood, however, and no accurate statements can be made as to the cause of the increase in temperature.

Sometimes the temperature in silos does not exceed 35°. The curing of hay is usually accompanied by a rise of temperature. For some time it was believed that the spontaneous combustion of hay was mainly due to microörganisms, but it has been shown recently that even sterile hay will show a rise of temperature under certain conditions. This does not exclude the formation of heat in hay by microörganisms under other circumstances. The heating of tobacco, of green or moist grain or corn is probably not of bacterial origin, but due to chemical oxidation or to the respiration of the living plant tissue.

PRODUCTION OF LIGHT.—The light-producing or photogenic organisms are quite numerous and occur more frequently than is generally believed. The phosphorescence of decaying tree stumps and leaves in the woods and of meat and fish in the cellar are well-known phenomena. The phosphorescence of wood and leaves is generally caused by *Hyphomycetes;* certain mushrooms have this quality in a very high degree. The light of meat and fish is usually generated by bacteria, of which at least twenty-six species have been described.

Many experiments have been carried on in order to discover the nature and origin of the light, but, so far, few results have been obtained. The phosphorescence is due to an oxidation process; all photogenic organisms cease to generate light when the oxygen is removed. As soon as they come in contact with oxygen again, they produce light immediately, and this sudden flashing is used occasionally by physiologists as a very delicate test for oxygen. The light appears to be produced always within the cell; no cell product has ever been found to give rise to light outside the cell. It is possible that a chemical compound is formed in the cell which generates light when in contact with oxygen.

The life processes of the photogenic microörganisms are not necessarily connected with the formation of light. Photogenic bacteria are known to lose the power of light production as the chromogenic bacteria may lose the power of pigment production. Phosphorescence has, like pigmentation also, no bearing upon the development of the cell, and the light-giving compounds may be regarded as incidental waste products. Certain chemical bodies stimulate light production, while others favor the growth only. One of the most important factors in the production of light is sodium chloride.

CHAPTER III.

MECHANISM OF METABOLISM.

General Theory of Metabolism.

Anabolism and Katabolism.—The study of the physiological mechanism of the cell is the most interesting and most difficult problem of biological research, for it tries to discover the secret of life processes. The physiological mechanism of the cell consists of three parts generally distinguished one from the other, being interdependent upon each other—*Fermentation*, intra- and extra-cellular, *katabolism*, the dissociation of cell substances, and *anabolism*, the assimilation of food in the synthetic processes of the cell. The katabolic processes have been studied successfully for a long time, and our knowledge of the digestion of organic and inorganic substances has a definite chemical basis. Digestive processes can be accomplished *in vitro*, but the cell is required to furnish the digestive agent which, after being removed from the cell, may be treated as a definite chemical compound. The katabolism, consisting of many destructive chemical processes, some of which are well-defined and some wholly unknown, represents the degeneration of the cell. The study of the anabolic or synthetic processes is to a large extent speculation. Very meager is the positive knowledge of the chemical changes involved, and only the very simplest of these reactions can be duplicated *in vitro*.

The problems of digestion have attracted the attention of scientists long before microörganisms were known, and the knowledge of the digestive processes of man and animals have helped the microbiologist in many ways. Again, many results of microbiological research which could be obtained only with single-celled organisms are employed now to great advantage in general physiology.

Intra- and Extra-cellular Fermentation.

Decomposition of Insoluble Food.—It has been stated before that many microörganisms feed upon cellulose, starch, fat, gelatin, keratin and other insoluble compounds. It has also been previously stated that microörganisms, with the exception of some protozoa, depend upon

soluble food since they have no means of incorporating insoluble compounds into their protoplasm. The protoplasm, however, must be considered the center of metabolism, and the digestion of food and the formation of energy must take place in the protoplasm if the cell is to profit by it. Since the food cannot diffuse into the cell, and the protoplasm does not diffuse out, the food must be dissolved. This is accomplished by the cell itself, which secretes certain agents having peculiar qualities. These agents, the so-called *enzymes*, act upon the insoluble foods, changing them into soluble compounds which then can diffuse into the cell where they are digested or fermented. The final digestion or fermentation of the food must take place within the cell. Energy production outside the cell serves the same purpose as a stove outside the house. The dissolution of insoluble compounds by cell secretions must be considered a preparatory process which has no direct relation to intra-cellular food digestion or fermentation. Enzymes are not produced by microbial cells exclusively. All living cells produce enzymes. They were known before the science of microbiology had been established. In fact, microbial activity was considered for a long time as an enzymic chemical process. Enzymes in the animal and plant body may serve largely the purpose of metabolic changes. In the animal body, many enzymes help to dissolve the insoluble food which cannot pass from the alimentary canal into the body except by diffusion through the mucous membrane. There is *diastase* in the saliva which acts upon starch, there is *pepsin* in the stomach and *trypsin* in the intestine, both dissolving protein bodies; there is *ereptase* for the peptones, *lipase* for the fat, *invertase* for the saccharose, and many other enzymes. The object of all these enzymes is apparently to prepare the food for passing through the membrane into the protoplasm of the cells, where the final changes which liberate energy take place. The same processes occur with micro-örganisms but in a more simple manner. Surrounded by a liquid medium, they secrete specific substances (enzymes); these dissolve certain insoluble foods which then diffuse through the cell-wall to be decomposed further.

The food-preparing processes are all supposed to be simple hydrolytic processes. For some of these changes the chemical equations are well known. The hydrolyzation of starch to maltose by means of diastase is represented by the equation

$$2(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n + nH_2O = nC_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$$

The splitting up of a fat molecule into glycerin and fatty acid is also a well-known process

$$\underset{\text{Tristearin}}{C_3H_5(C_{18}H_{35}O_2)_3} + 3H_2O = \underset{\text{Glycerin}}{C_3H_5(OH)_3} + 3\underset{\text{Stearic acid}}{C_{18}H_{36}O_2}$$

The proteolysis is not so well known and the general supposition that the first stages of protein degradation are hydrolytic is largely based upon analogies. Some of these enzymes which are secreted by the microbial cells act upon soluble compounds. *Invertase* decomposes saccharose into dextrose and levulose:

$$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} + H_2O = C_6H_{12}O_6 + C_6H_{12}O_6$$

Other disaccharides are hydrolyzed in the same way by other enzymes; glucosides are decomposed by *emulsin;* soluble proteins are changed to peptones. It is not necessary that the enzymes act upon the soluble compounds outside the cell since these compounds can diffuse into the cell; these enzymes are found only occasionally within the cell. It may be said, however, that the smaller molecules of the products of enzymic action diffuse more readily than the larger molecules of the original food compound.

Properties of Enzymes.—These secretions of cells are treated in a group by themselves because they differ distinctly in many respects from any other chemical substance. Probably the most notable difference may be discovered in the fact that their action does not follow the law of mass action which supposes that all substances reacting upon each other diminish in quantity. This is not the case with enzymes. *Rennet* will coagulate many hundred times its weight of casein, and still the whey will contain rennet. Considering that part of the rennet is physically absorbed by the coagulum, the amount of rennet is found to be the same as before, though it has changed a comparatively enormous quantity of casein. The same is true with other enzymes. The enzyme is not destroyed by acting upon other substances. This exceptional quality furnishes a reason for treating enzymes as a separate group or apart from other chemical substances. But there are still other qualities which distinctly separate them from the well-known chemical bodies, and show at the same time their relation to proteins and toxins (page 122). One of these is their sensibility to such outside influences as will destroy life. Enzymes are inactivated by exposure to temperatures above 50° to 80°, and can, like coagulated albumin, by no means be brought back to

their orginal state. They have, like organisms, a maximum, optimum and minimum temperature of activity, and if heated above the maximum they will be destroyed. In this respect they resemble albumin since the maximum temperature for enzymes is very near the coagulating temperature of albumin. It is believed from this resemblance that enzymes are of an albuminous nature. Another similarity is the fact that both enzymes and albumins are precipitated by concentrated salt solutions. Enzymes can further be inactivated by poisons. The same substances which kill living cells, like formaldehyde, hydrocyanic acid, mercuric chloride, phenol, will also inactivate enzymes, though usually stronger solutions are required for the destruction of the enzyme than for killing the cell. It is the same with heat; a higher temperature is generally required to destroy the enzyme than to kill the cell which secreted it. Light will also affect enzymes considerably. The great similarity of enzymes and microörganisms in these respects, the similarity of their reactions and the extreme minuteness of the bacteria render it explicable why the chemists of eighty years ago could not determine the difference between microörganisms and enzymes.

With the toxins, the enzymes have in common the great sensibility to heat, light, and chemicals. Both of these groups are resistant to drying to a limited extent. So far as body reactions are concerned these two groups seem to belong to one physiological group of compounds. When toxins are injected, the body responds by the production of antitoxins which inactivate the toxin. In the same way the body responds to enzymes by the production of anti-enzymes which prevent the action of the enzymes. It may be mentioned that against protein compounds, precipitins are produced by the body which precipitate only that protein which was injected. This "specific" action is also true with toxins and enzymes. The anti-body will inactivate only the specific kind of toxin or enzyme that was injected.

What an enzyme really is cannot be defined. An enzyme is known only by its reactions. Many chemists have tried to prepare pure enzymes by continuously dissolving and precipitating, by dialyzing and other means, but there are two great difficulties existing; there is no test for the purity of enzymes, and they lose in activity if treated with chemicals. The more they are freed from the protein bodies which always accompany them, the more sensitive they are to injurious influences. The purest enzymes that have been obtained do not give the reactions of protein

substances. Mineral salts seem essential for their action, because continued dialyzing weakens the activity which can be restored only by adding salts.

MECHANISM OF FERMENTATION.—It has been demonstrated in the above paragraph that food is prepared for digestion or fermentation by enzymes. The final decomposition, the process which yields the energy for cell life, must take place within the cell. The investigations of recent years have demonstrated that these processes also are caused by enzymes. It has been proved beyond doubt that in the alcoholic, lactic, acetic and urea fermentations the fermentation process may continue after the death of the fermenting cells. In the case of alcoholic fermentation, the fermenting agent has been separated from the lacerated cells and has been filtered through porcelain filters without losing its ability to act. This proves the enzyme-nature of the fermenting agent which after once being formed, remains and acts independent of the cell. These enzymes are called *zymases*. They remain within the cell as long as it is alive. They are much more sensitive to injurious influences than the above mentioned food-preparing enzymes. Much skill and patience was required to demonstrate their independence of the living cell. After these enzymes were found in microörganisms, similar enzymes were discovered in the cells of higher plants and animals. Many of the biochemical changes taking place in the final dissociation of food within the cell are now known to be the result of enzymic action; heretofore these reactions were believed to be a part of the life-processes, inseparable from the living cell. Even some of the oxidations and many reducing processes have been recognized as caused by enzymes, and it is quite possible that the whole process of intracellular food decomposition is accomplished entirely by means of enzymes.

CLASSIFICATION OF ENZYMES.

Since the chemical nature of enzymes and of their action is largely unknown, they can be classified only according to the compounds they act upon. It is possible, however, to distinguish between the following four groups: *Hydrolyzing, zymatic, oxidizing, reducing* enzymes. This definition is not quite exact, since the urea fermenting enzyme is also a hydrolyzing enzyme, and the acetic fermentation is caused by an oxidizing enzyme. The distinction between *endo-enzymes* (*intra-cellular*) and

exo-enzymes (*secreted*) is not exact, either, since invertase and lactase are retained in the cells of some organisms and secreted by others.

The following classification is used in the further discussions:

I. *Hydrolytic Enzymes.*
   1. of carbohydrates: cellulase (cytase), diastase (ptyalin, amylase), invertase, lactase, maltase.
   2. of fats: lipase (steapsin).
   3. of proteins:
      a. proteolytic (proteases): pepsin (peptase), trypsin (tryptase), erepsin (ereptase).
      b. coagulating: thrombase, rennet (chymosin).

II. *Zymases.*
   1. of carbohydrates: alcoholase, lactacidase.
   2. of other nitrogen-free bodies: vinegar-oxidase.
   3. of proteins: endo-tryptase, autolytic enzymes, amidase, urease.

III. *Oxidizing Enzymes.*
   Vinegar-oxidase, tyrosinase.

IV. *Reducing Enzymes.*
   Katalase, reductases of nitrates, sulphur, sulphites, telluric salts, methylene blue, litmus.

Several names have been given to some of the enzymes; these are found in parentheses in the above classification.

The general action of enzymes being explained in the preceding pages, it remains to describe more in detail the different enzymes of microbial origin.

Hydrolytic Enzymes.

Enzymes of Carbohydrates.—Enzymes which decompose carbohydrates are very commonly found in nature, because carbohydrates constitute a very extensive and common group of organic matter. By far the largest part of the dry plant consists of cellulose, starch and sugar. To decompose them, enzymes are necessary. The chemical reaction of these enzymes is hydrolytic; in other words, the larger molecule is broken into smaller ones by the simple addition of water. Thus, the cellulose-destroying enzyme, called *cellulase* or *cytase*, decomposes the cellulose into soluble sugars after the following formula:

$$C_6H_{10}O_5 + H_2O = C_6H_{12}O_6$$

or, considering that the cellulose molecule is really many times $C_6H_{10}O_5$, the formula will be more accurately written

$$(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n + nH_2O = nC_6H_{12}O_6$$

which indicates at the same time that one cellulose molecule gives many sugar molecules.

Cellulase is an enzyme which is quite difficult to obtain. Though it must be produced by all the cellulose destroying molds and bacteria, experiments have failed in some instances to prove its presence. It is found in some wood destroying fungi and in some of the bacteria causing the rot of vegetables. The organisms of certain plant diseases force their way into the cell by dissolving the cellulose membrane by an enzyme, while certain molds are able to puncture the cell wall mechanically.

Diastase, or amylase, is the starch-dissolving enzyme which is one of the most common enzymes in nature. It is found in all green plants, and it forms during the sprouting of starchy seeds. Many molds and a few bacteria produce this enzyme, while yeasts generally cannot decompose starch for lack of diastase. Starch has the same formula as cellulose, and it is broken up into soluble sugars in the same way. Much attention has been paid to this process by the chemists, and it is found that the process is a gradual one, giving first dextrins, and finally maltose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$). The hydrolysis of starch expressed in chemical symbols may be presented as follows:

$$\underset{\text{Starch}}{2(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n} + nH_2O = \underset{\text{Maltose}}{nC_{12}H_{22}O_{11}}$$

The disaccharides or double sugars, having the chemical formula $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$ are broken up into single sugars, monosaccharides, by the following process:

$$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} + H_2O = C_6H_{12}O_6 + C_6H_{12}O_6$$

The two molecules of $C_6H_{12}O_6$ are different with different sugars. If the disaccharide is saccharose, the two monosaccharide molecules are dextrose and levulose. Lactose will yield dextrose and galactose, and maltose will give two molecules of dextrose. For each of these sugars, there is a special enzyme which can hydrolyze only its particular sugar and none of the others; like a key, made for one lock, it will not open another lock. *Maltase* will split only maltose molecules, not lactose, while the *lactase* cannot attack the maltose. *Invertase* (or *sucrase*) will decompose nothing but saccharose. This decomposition of the complex sugars into the simple sugars is necessary because only sugars of the type $C_6H_{12}O_6$ can be fermented directly by the fermenting enzyme in the cell, be it an alcoholic or lactic or gassy fermentation. This explains why beer yeast

cannot ferment lactose; it produces no lactase, and therefore cannot attack the lactose molecules; they would be easily attacked, if besides the yeast, some lactase were added. Certain lactic bacteria cannot ferment saccharose, because they do not form invertase.

Invertase is, like diastase, a very common enzyme in green plants. It is also produced by the larger number of molds and yeasts, and also of bacteria. Maltase is not quite so common, and lactase is limited to a few species of microörganisms. A few organisms are known which do not secrete these enzymes but retain them within the cell. This is especially true of lactase, but is also known, in a few instances, of invertase. The enzyme can be obtained from the broken cells. Such enzymes are called *endo-enzymes*.

The decomposition of carbohydrates has been followed from the most complex representatives to the simplest ones, the monosaccharides. If these are decomposed further, the resulting product is no longer a carbohydrate. The simplest sugars are decomposed by zymases, inside the microbial cell, into compounds which are generally called fermentation products; these may result from alcoholic, lactic, butyric fermentations or some other.

Emulsin is an enzyme which is able to hydrolyze glucosides. Glucosides occurring in plants are complex bodies which contain a sugar-radical. Emulsin splits glucosides liberating the sugar, usually dextrose. The typical example for emulsin action is the hydrolysis of amygdalin to hydrocyanic acid, benzaldehyde and dextrose.

$$\underset{\text{Amygdalin}}{C_{20}H_{27}O_{11}N} + 2H_2O = \underset{\text{Benzaldehyde}}{C_6H_5COH} + 2\underset{\text{Dextrose}}{C_6H_{12}O_6} + \underset{\text{Hydrocyanic acid}}{HCN}.$$

Emulsin is found in many molds and bacteria, and recently has been found in yeasts. Glucoside-splitting enzymes play an important rôle in the fermentations of coffee-beans, cocoa, mustard and indigo. In most of these fermentations, however, the emulsin is probably not formed by microörganisms, but by the plant, from which the fermenting material is derived.

ENZYMES OF FATS.—All the enzymes, acting on fat, decompose it in the same manner; the fat molecule takes up three molecules of water, breaking up into glycerin and three molecules of fatty acid, as indicated on page 112. It is possible that there are several fat-splitting enzymes, but the result of the cleavage process is always the same. The name formerly assigned to enzymes of fat is *steapsin*, but this term is now almost exclu-

sively substituted by the more significant word *lipase*. Occasionally they are called lipolytic enzymes which expression is analogous to the proteolytic enzymes; in the same way, the term amylolytic enzyme is used for diastase.

ENZYMES OF PROTEINS.—The enzymes decomposing protein bodies, generally called proteolytic enzymes or *proteases*, have been known for nearly a century. Though the difficulty of analyzing protein bodies accurately prevents an absolute knowledge of proteolysis, much effort has been made to become acquainted with the very important group of enzymes which accomplish the digestion of protein food. Naturally, most experimenting has been conducted with pepsin and trypsin of the animal body, accordingly these are better understood than others, and only little work has been done with microbial enzymes; but there is so far as can be determined little appreciable difference between the proteolytic enzymes obtained from different organisms, whether low or high in the plant or animal world, consequently many experiences with animal pepsin and trypsin can be applied to microbial enzymes.

The specific chemical action of these enzymes is referable to hydrolysis; the large protein molecule is broken up into smaller molecules by addition of water. Various proteolytic enzymes differ in the extent of decomposition. While some, like pepsin, produce mainly peptones, trypsin is able to split protein to amino-acids and even to ammonia. Mavrojannis tested for the intensity of gelatin decomposition with formaldehyde. The peptones of gelatin will solidify with formaldehyde while amino-acids are not affected.

Proteolytic enzymes were first divided into two groups: *pepsins*, which act best in slightly acid solutions, and *trypsins*, which act best in slightly alkaline media. The names are derived from pepsin (peptase), the proteolytic enzyme of the animal stomach, and from trypsin (tryptase) which is found in the small intestine of animals. This classification cannot be used for the enzymes of microörganisms because there is no definite line established by the acidity. Some enzymes work in either acid or alkaline media equally well, preferring a neutral reaction. Enzymes should be classified according to the substances they act upon or perhaps according to the nature of the products resulting from the fermentation. This would bring pepsin and trypsin into one class, both acting upon protein bodies as such; they, however, differ in the intensity of action as shown by their products, the pepsin forming mainly peptones, the trypsin carrying

on the decomposition as far as amino-acids and traces of ammonia. Another class recently recognized is *ereptase* (erepsin) which cannot decompose protein, but readily attacks peptones, decomposing them much in the same way as trypsin. Pepsin, trypsin and erepsin do not break up amino-compounds.

The presence of proteolytic enzymes in microörganisms is readily tested by cultivation on nutrient gelatin. The proteolytic enzyme secreted by the cells will liquefy the gelatin. Generally, an organism that liquefies gelatin will also decompose the casein of milk and the protein of blood serum. There are some exceptions, however, as is shown in the following table, after Frost and McCampbell. A + sign means proteolysis, a − sign means no action.

Organism.	Milk.		Gelatin.	Serum.	Egg album.	Fibrin.
	Coag.	Digest.				
Bact. anthracis	+	+	+	−	+	+
Microspira comma	+	+	+	+	+	+
M. pyogenes var. aureus	+	+	+	−	−	−
Pseudomonas pyocyanea	+	+	+	+	+	−
B. violaceus	−	−	+	−	−	−
B. mycoides	+	+	+	−	+	−
B. prodigiosus	−	+	+	+	+	+
Aspergillus niger	+	+	−	−	−	−
Aspergillus oryzæ	±	+	+	+	+	−

Apparently not all organisms which liquefy gelatin are able to decompose egg albumin, and we must conclude that the enzyme liquefying gelatin is different from the proteolytic enzyme dissolving egg-white.

Coagulating Enzymes.—The blood-clotting enzyme (*thrombase*) does not occur in microörganisms. *Rennet*, however, is found in many species. Rennet is extracted from the stomach of calves and pigs and used to set the curd in milk for cheese making. The enzyme acts upon the casein in milk, decomposing it into paracasein and some soluble protein. The time of coagulation depends upon the temperature of the milk and the concentration of the rennet. This coagulation of milk is quite different from the acid curd, where the insoluble casein is precipitated by the acid. If enough acid is added, the milk curdles immediately;

if there is not enough acid, there will be no curd, not even after a long time. An acid curd can be brought back to the original state by an addition of alkali, while a rennet curd by no means can be changed back to casein. Rennet-forming bacteria are found in milk and dairy products, in soil and other habitats. They will coagulate milk without causing any appreciable increase of acidity. They all seem to digest the curd after it is formed (see the above table). The relation between proteolytic and rennet enzymes will be discussed in a later chapter.

Rennet is sometimes called chymosin; the Society of American Bacteriologists uses the German word "*lab.*"

Zymases.

The zymases are the agents which furnish the energy for cell life by causing fermentative decompositions. As has been stated before, the processes which provide for energy must take place inside of the cell. Consequently, all intracellular enzymes are endo-enzymes. The difference between the soluble enzymes and the endo-enzymes is very plainly shown in the following table, giving the energy liberated by the various enzymes by acting upon 1 g. of substance.

Energy liberated from 1 *g. of substance.*

Soluble Enzymes.		*Endo-Enzymes.*	
Pepsin, trypsin	0 calories	Lactacidase	82 calories
Lipase	4 calories	Alcoholase	160 calories
Maltase, invertase	10 calories	Urease	239 calories
Lactase	23 calories	Vinegar-oxidase	2,520 calories

The microbial cell does not lose much energy by the activity of the soluble enzymes outside of the cell, because their energy yield is insignificant.

The first zymase recognized as such was *urease*, the enzyme which changes urea to ammonium carbonate. The urease was not considered an exceptional case, and no particular attention was paid to the fact that it was the only zymase known at that time. The actual investigations of the zymases did not start until Buchner had demonstrated that yeast can be ground with infusorial earth until all cells are lacerated, and then can be pressed and the juice filtered without losing the power of alcoholic fermentation. Such fermentation cannot be due to

anything but a soluble compound of the yeast cell. Thus the *alcoholase* was recognized. It was found later that yeast may be killed by alcohol, ether or acetone without losing its fermenting power.

This last method was applied later to lactic bacteria, and it was proved that the lactic acid is also produced by an enzyme, *lactacidase.* It is possible to kill the lactic bacteria cells so that they do not multiply but still continue to form acid. It seems quite probable that other fermentations of carbohydrates, like the butyric and the gassy fermentations, are really due to enzymes. It is very difficult to give the experimental proof, however. These enzymes are so sensitive that it requires much experience to separate them from the cell, and it is also quite difficult to obtain bacteria in quantities large enough for such experiments.

The vinegar oxidase is an enzyme which remains in the cell of the acetic bacterium, oxidizing alcohol to acetic acid. Its independence of the living cell has been demonstrated by killing the cells with acetone.

The PROTEOLYTIC ENDO-ENZYMES of yeasts, only, have been studied extensively. That such enzymes exist is recognized by the observation that certain microörganisms do not liquefy the gelatin until after they are dead and the proteolytic enzymes diffuse out through the deteriorating cell membranes. That yeast in the absence of sugar loses in weight, and that leucin and other cleavage-products of protein are formed, was the first indication of a proteolytic process in the yeast cells. By pressing the juice out of the ground yeast cells, a liquid is obtained which liquefies gelatin, digests casein, albumin and fibrin. The living yeast cell does not attack these compounds, because they cannot diffuse into the cell and the enzyme cannot diffuse out. The proteolytic endo-enzyme of yeast is called *endo-tryptase.* Its object is apparently the regulation of the protein-content of the cell and perhaps it has some bearing on the formation of cell plasma. The possible relation between enzymes and growth is discussed in a following sub-chapter.

If yeast is mixed with a weak antiseptic (chloroform, toluol) the proteolytic process takes place quite rapidly. This process is called *autolysis* (self-digestion). Similar autolytic enzymes are found in other microorganisms. Autolysis is a well-known process in the higher animals. To this is due the ripening of meat.

Proteolytic endo-enzymes must be expected in all microörganisms which depend upon protein as food material only. These organisms will produce certain enzymes which diffuse out of the cell and decompose

the protein into bodies which diffuse easily into the cell. Here, proteolytic endo-enzymes further decompose these products. Such an endo-enzyme is the *amidase* discovered by Shibata in the mycelium of *Aspergillus niger* which forms ammonia from urea, acetamid, oxamid, biuret. *Endo-erepsin* and amidase were also found in *Penicillium camemberti* by Dox.

Similar to these proteolytic enzymes is the *urease* which is formed in large quantities in the so-called urea bacteria, but it is also present in the mycelium of some molds. An endo-enzyme, splitting hippuric acid into benzoic acid and glycocoll, is found in the mycelium of a few molds.

Oxidizing Enzymes.

The most typical example of an oxidizing enzyme is the *vinegar-oxidase*, because its chemical action is well known. Most of the *oxidases* known act upon complex organic compounds, changing them to colored bodies. Such an oxidase is the *tyrosinase*, which forms a black, insoluble compound in tyrosin solutions. It is produced by several bacteria, especially by chromogens, and its application in testing for small quantities of tyrosin has been suggested. A number of oxidases are known to act upon the leuco-bodies of certain organic dye-compounds, as aloin, guaiac, phenolphthalein, and others. Hydrochinon is oxidized by the dead cells of a few molds. Strange seems the oxidation of potassium iodide to iodine by the *endo-oxidase* of a mold. Many other oxidations are supposed to be of enzymic nature, but their independence of the living cell has not been proved.

Many higher organisms are known to contain oxidases, the best studied are those of certain mushrooms which change the white mushroom meat into a bluish or brownish color as soon as it is exposed to the air. Oxidases are very common in most of the tissues of higher animals.

Reducing Enzymes.

Among the *reductases*, one enzyme stands apart from all the others, that is the *katalase* or *peroxidase* which reduces the hydrogen peroxide to water by liberation of oxygen.

$$H_2O_2 + \text{katalase} = H_2O + O$$

Katalase is one of the most commonly found enzymes; it is formed by practically all plants and all animals and is contained by all but a few

bacteria. Among these exceptions is the *Bact. lactis acidi.* The absence of katalase in this species has been recommended as a diagnostic test. It is possible that this enzyme is necessary for intracellular oxidations.

A number of other *reductases* are known. Nearly all of the reductions mentioned in the paragraph on the products of mineral decomposition are proved to be of enzymic nature; these processes will take place after the cell is killed by a disinfectant or is ground to pieces. This can be readily demonstrated by lacerating the cells with quartz sand. They will then reduce nitrates to nitrites, sulphur to hydrogen sulphide. The decolorization of litmus, methylene blue, indigo, and other organic dyes is due in microbial cultures to enzymes which are almost exclusively endo-enzymes.

Additional Remarks on the Relation of Cells and Enzymes.

Enzymes are produced only by living cells. After they are once formed, they act like chemical compounds, independent of the cell which produced them. Even the endo-enzymes follow only the law of enzyme action and are not influenced by the cell which contains them. The enzymes are mostly influenced by their own products, and when a certain yeast ceases to ferment sugar at the concentration of 8.5 per cent of alchohol, this means that the alcoholase of this yeast cannot tolerate more than 8.5 per cent of alcohol. The inability of the cell to regulate enzymic action may account for the fact that often a culture produces an amount of fermentation products sufficient to kill all cells. This is observed in the lactic, acetic and alcoholic fermentations, and perhaps occurs in many others.

Most cells produce more than one enzyme. Microörganisms feeding upon various foods must form various enzymes. Frequently several enzymes are necessary for the decomposition of one compound. *Mucor rouxii* uses three enzymes in order to form alcohol from starch, first the diastase to change starch to maltose, then maltase to change maltose to dextrose and finally alcoholase to change dextrose to alcohol and carbon dioxide. The number of enzymes formed by certain microörganisms is surprising. *Aspergillus niger* has the reputation of forming almost all enzymes which have ever been found in microörganisms. *Penicillium camemberti* produces (after Dox) erepsin nuclease, amidase, lipase,

emulsin, amylase, inulase, raffinase, invertase, maltase and lactase. It has been believed for a long time that certain enzymes are regular products of the cell while others are formed only if the substance upon which they act is present. According to Dox's investigations with *Penicillium camemberti*, there is no evidence that enzymes not normally formed by the organism in demonstrable quantities can be developed by special methods of nutrition. The addition of a particular food compound does not develop an entirely new enzyme, but stimulates the production of the corresponding enzyme which is normally formed, although in small amounts, under all conditions.

Theory of Katabolism.

Regarding katabolism as the sum of all destructive processes of the living cell substance, *i.e.*, of the protoplasm, and considering the cell substance to be decomposed and renewed constantly as long as the cell is performing the normal functions of life, then there must be a renovating and a destructive process continuously going on in the protoplasmic molecules. If the food supply ceases, anabolism ceases with it, but it has been demonstrated that katabolism may continue just the same for some time. By this method, the products of katabolism can be obtained free from the products of food digestion which would obscure the results of experiment with katabolism in normally fed cells.

It is difficult to determine to what extent katabolism is controlled by *endo-enzymes*, the so-called *autolytic enzymes*, which have been mentioned in the above paragraph. In the autolysis of yeast cells, the only well-studied example of microbial autolysis, have been found guanin, adenin, xanthin, hypoxanthin and ammonia.

Theory of Anabolism.

Interaction of Anabolism and Intra-cellular Fermentation.—All changes discussed in the previous chapters are fermenting processes in which organic or inorganic compounds are broken up to smaller molecules. These processes are exothermic, *i.e.*, liberating heat or energy in other form. The opposite is true of the anabolic processes which build up complex molecules from simple compounds. These synthetic processes are endothermic, absorbing heat or energy in other

form. Growth is the typical manifestation of anabolism. It is the formation of new cells from dead organic or inorganic matter, and it means the formation of all the compounds necessary for cell life. Of all the substances found in the cell, practically none are contained in the food, and it is wonderful that in such a small unit as a microbial cell, there are contained the powers of making protoplasm, enzymes, nuclear bodies, chromatin-bodies, the substance of the cell wall and probably many other unknown compounds. All these complex substances are generally made from simple food compounds as amino-acids, carbohydrates and others.

These synthetic processes of the cell will, like most endothermic processes, take place only if energy is provided. This condition is usually fulfilled in the living cell, due to the fermenting processes going on continuously. There is a strange interaction between anabolism and intracellular fermentation proceeding in the protoplasm and this linking together of destructive and constructive reaction is the basis of life processes. The life processes decompose certain substances, the energy liberated allows the formation of protoplasm, which again liberates energy. Thus a continuous formation of protoplasm is secured.

An explanation of anabolism based upon chemical experiments is not possible at the present time. In the study of intra-cellular destruction it is possible to trace most processes back to enzymic action. There our knowledge ceases because the nature and mode of action of enzymes is unknown. In the study of anabolism our knowledge has not even progressed so far. The most promising explanation at present is based upon the *reversibility* of enzymic action.

Reversibility of Enzymic Action.—Chemical reactions between organic compounds proceed quite rapidly at first, then become slower and slower until the reaction stops entirely. The reaction is not complete at the time it reaches an equilibrium. If the equilibrium is disturbed by adding more of the reagents, the process will continue. If, however, the products of reaction are added, the reverse process will take place. Reactions between organic compounds can proceed either way, depending upon the relative concentrations of the reacting substances. The standard example is esterification. Acetic acid plus alcohol gives ester plus water,

$$\underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_3COOH} + \underset{\text{Alcohol}}{CH_3CH_2OH} \rightleftarrows \underset{\text{Ester}}{CH_3COO\,CH_2CH_3} + H_2O$$

The process goes to a certain equilibrium and stops. If ester is mixed with water, it gives acid plus alcohol, until the same equilibrium is reached. If acid and alcohol are added to a system in equilibrium, more ester will be formed. If ester is added, more alcohol and acetic acid will be formed. The same is true with enzymes, at least with some enzymes. Maltase will decompose maltose into two molecules of dextrose. In a concentrated solution of dextrose, however, maltase will form maltose, or a similar sugar, isomaltose. Lipase is able to produce fat from glycerin and fatty acids. A solution of albumose with trypsin or pepsin gives a precipitate of a body which is more complex than albumose and which gives the protein reactions. It is believed by many physiologists that pepsin and rennet are the same body. Under certain conditions, it has a dissolving power, under other conditions it has the power to coagulate.

The reversibility of enzymic action has given rise to much speculation about assimilation and growth. It seems reasonable to suppose that the cell forms its protoplasm from amino-acids by the reversed action of proteolytic enzymes. In the same way, cellulose may be formed from dextrose, fat from glycerin and fatty acids. Nearly all phases of growth can be accounted for in this way. This is nothing but theoretical speculation, and the only fact to support it is the reversibility of certain enzymes. The conditions under which chemical reactions take place inside of the cell are very largely unknown. There are so many processes going on at the same time that it is absolutely impossible at the present time to obtain a perfect knowledge of all these reactions. Our experience is limited to the very simplest changes, and even these are not perfectly understood because the detailed conditions under which the changes take place are unknown. Information obtained by experiments *in vitro* is practically all that is available, and these experiments are conducted under very simple conditions, where complications as they might occur in the cell, are excluded. Thus, our knowledge of the processes of growth is largely based upon analogy and speculation.

DIVISION II.

PHYSICAL INFLUENCES.

CHAPTER I.

MOISTURE.

Moisture may be called the most important factor of life. Not only bacteria, but every microscopic and macroscopic being requires a considerable amount of moisture. Living organisms contain on the average between 70 per cent and 90 per cent of water, and only 10 per cent to 30 per cent of solid matter. Microörganisms which live entirely submerged in liquids need water not only within but without the cells. Bacteria, yeasts, molds, and some protozoa obtain their food by diffusion through the cell-membrane; their food-substances must be soluble and dissolved. No other liquid can take the place of water.

The amount of water required by microörganisms cannot be stated briefly. Several factors have to be taken into consideration, as the osmotic pressure, the insoluble and the colloidal substances, the species of organisms, temperature, and perhaps others.

OSMOTIC PRESSURE.—In the organic world we find very commonly membranes which will allow water to pass through but retain some compounds dissolved in the water. Such so-called semi-permeable membranes are found surrounding the protoplasm of cells. They are not the cell wall, but separate the protoplasm from the cell wall. Similar properties are found in parchment paper, pig's bladder, and other organic membranes.

If a salt solution is poured in water, the two liquids will mix in a short time and soon every smallest portion of the mixture will have the same concentration. If a salt solution and water are separated by a membrane which does not allow the salt to pass, the water will go through the membrane toward the salt with a certain amount of pressure. This pressure depends upon the nature of the dissolved substance as well as upon its concentration.

The pressure increases in direct ratio with the number of molecules in solution. Therefore, the pressure of solutions of equal concentration by weight will be the smaller the larger the molecule, because the larger the molecules the smaller the number required to make a certain weight. The osmotic pressure of protein, starch and peptone solution can be measured only with the finest instruments, while the pressure of a 30 per cent dextrose solution is 22 atmospheres.* With acids, alkalies and salts, the pressure is higher than would follow from the concentration, because the molecules of these electrolytes are dissociated, thus increasing the number of unit-particles in solution.

PLASMOLYSIS.—If a cell is brought into a strong solution of a substance which cannot pass the plasma-membrane, this substance will cause an osmotic pressure and the concentration in the cell being lower than in the medium, the water will pass out from the cell until the pressure inside and outside is the same. This causes a shrinking of the protoplasm, while the rigid cell-wall keeps its shape. Such plasmolyzed organisms are illustrated in figure 30, p. 50.

While plasmolysis is easily demonstrated with the cells of higher plants, microörganisms do not show it so readily. In fact, many bacteria, like *B. subtilis*, *Bact. anthracis*, cannot be plasmolyzed by any concentration of salt in solution. Others, as *B. coli*, *B. fluorescens*, react promptly. But even though many are killed, the rest recover from plasmolysis after a few hours, and appear normal. This indicates that the salt passes slowly through the plasma membrane and thus increases the pressure inside the cell until finally the inside and outside pressure are the same again.

The fact that many microörganisms show no plasmolysis whatever is explained in the same way. These organisms probably have plasma-membranes so constructed that the salts diffuse through nearly as fast as the water. An absolute exclusion of all soluble substances by the membrane is impossible since the food can get into the cell only by diffusion through the membrane.

The resistance of various microörganisms against concentrated solutions depends upon the organism as well as upon the dissolved substance. The sodium and potassium salts of the common mineral acids act upon a culture nearly in proportion to their osmotic pressure, but the potassium salts always retard growth a little less than the sodium salts.

* One atmosphere equals the pressure of one kilogram per square centimeter or about 15 pounds per square inch.

The effect of salts upon microörganisms is therefore not due to the osmotic pressure only; the chemical constitution of the salts also plays an important rôle.

The different functions of life are influenced in different degrees by concentrated solutions. Some bacteria will multiply but not form spores in salt solutions. Molds will sometimes show a good growth in concentrated sugar solutions but fail to produce spores unless the medium is diluted. *Bact. anthracis* loses its virulence in sea water. Often the form of microörganisms is affected by concentrated solutions. Some bacteria grow more spherical, others become elongated or distorted. The deforming influence is not due to the osmotic pressure only, but depends mainly upon the chemical character of the salt; magnesium salts especially have a tendency to produce such involution-forms.

Salt and Sugar Solutions.—Most experiments on the influence of concentrated solutions have been carried on with sodium chloride, because of its wide application in the preservation of foods. Most microörganisms, especially the rod-shaped bacteria, are suppressed by a salt concentration of 8–10 per cent. At 15 per cent only few cocci develop slowly, while some species of torulac grow without a very noticeable retardation. Above 20 per cent the torulæ are practically the only organisms which can develop. They are, therefore, found in all food products which are preserved by salt, as salted pork, beef, fish, butter, and pickles, often in nearly a pure culture. It seems that they are easily overpowered by other organisms in the absence of salt, but this has a selective action, preventing nearly all other organisms but the torulæ.

The selective influence of salt is used in some fermented products to prevent undesirable fermentations. This is true in sauerkraut and brine pickles, where the desirable bacteria can grow in the presence of salt while the undesirable ones are kept away. Possibly the salting of butter has the same effects.

Another compound of great practical importance is cane sugar, which is the standard preservative for fruits and condensed milk. Its action has been studied mainly upon molds. Theoretically, dextrose should be expected to have twice as strong a preserving action as saccharose because it has only half the molecular weight and consequently produces twice as strong an osmotic pressure in the same percentage of concentration. But though its preserving action is a little higher than that of saccharose, the proportion is not nearly 1:2. The common molds

are extremely resistant to strong sugar solutions, about 60–70 per cent of cane sugar seems to be the limit of growth for *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* species. Yeasts can also grow and ferment in very concentrated solutions while bacteria in general do not tolerate solutions higher than 15 to 30 per cent, though many exceptions are known.

Colloidal Solutions.—In order to determine the amount of water which is absolutely necessary for microbial proliferation, only such media can be used which do not cause osmotic pressure. If *B. prodigiosus* does not develop in a 10 per cent salt solution, this is not due to lack of moisture, because the same bacillus will grow in a 30 per cent sugar solution which contains 20 per cent less moisture. Another factor besides the water content enters, which can be avoided only in solutions without osmotic pressure.

A few substances are known to give such solutions. It was stated before that the osmotic pressure depends upon the number of molecules dissolved in a liquid; the larger the molecule the lower the osmotic pressure. There is a group of substances known as colloidal bodies which have a very large molecular weight, between 1,000 and 10,000, it is estimated. Their osmotic pressure even in very concentrated solutions would not be high enough to interfere with microbial growth. Among these colloidal bodies are found egg albumen, gelatin, peptones, all protein substances; also starch, dextrin and gum arabic among the carbohydrates. None of these substances has a retarding influence upon bacteria; some of them can be mixed with water in all proportions; consequently, they are the ideal medium to test the water requirements of microörganisms.

Experiments carried on with gelatin, powdered meat, crackers, bread and potato, vary but little in results. A few bacteria cannot grow in a medium with only 60 per cent water, but most organisms develop slowly even with 50 per cent water and some may be able to develop with only 40 per cent. Molds can grow very scantily in even more concentrated media. Protozoa probably have to have a more diluted medium for their development though no experiments bearing upon their water requirements are known to the author.

The fact that in a colloidal solution growth will cease if the moisture is below 30 to 40 per cent does not necessarily indicate the conclusion that any substance with less than 30 per cent water cannot be decomposed. The above statement refers only to solutions, while in natural media as dried foods or soil, a combination of solid and dissolved substances is in-

volved. Butter is an excellent medium for many bacteria, yeasts, and molds, though it contains only 12 to 15 per cent of moisture. If butter fat were soluble in water, the concentration of 85 parts of solids in 15 parts of liquid would certainly prevent any growth whatever, but fat is insoluble, and the fat particles do not interfere at all with the growth of microörganisms in the droplets of buttermilk distributed all through the butter. The concentration in these small droplets is the deciding factor. If the growth of microörganisms in butter is to be prevented by salt, it is unnecessary to give any attention to the fat; the bacteria live only in the water and not in the fat globules. In adding 3 per cent of salt to a butter with 15 per cent of moisture, a brine of 3 parts of salt in 15 parts of water is produced; in other words, a 20 per cent brine, because salt does not dissolve in the fat. Similar considerations will come up in the preservation of fruit, vegetables, meat, milk, and other food substances by drying or condensation.

DESICCATION.—Microörganisms do not die immediately if water is not present. The majority of bacteria will remain alive for a few days if dried on glass or filter-paper. Some will live for a month or more, while a few, like the *B. carotarum*, die within twenty-four hours after drying. Spores of bacteria are extremely resistant to desiccation. Certain spores, like those of *Bact. anthracis* and *B. mesentericus*, have been kept alive for many years. The mycelium of molds is ordinarily killed if dried completely, while the spores survive. Yeasts show a varying resistance.

The resistance of microörganisms is influenced greatly by the medium on which they are placed for drying. Hansen found that yeast cells dried on cotton were still alive after two to three years, while if dried on platinum wire some died in five days and others lived as long as 100 days. Compressed beer yeast mixed and dried with powdered charcoal kept as long as ten years; *Pseudomonas radicicola* dried on a cover-glass or filter-paper died within twenty-four hours; on seeds, this same organism was still alive after fourteen days and in the dried nodules of legumes a few cells were able to reproduce after more than two years. Soil containing an average number of 17,000,000 bacteria per g. was dried for two years; the total number of organisms averaged then 3,250,000; 20 per cent of the bacteria, therefore, could resist desiccation. Dried cultures of microörganisms are commonly sold for several purposes, as dairy-starters and the so-called "magic yeast" used for bread-making. Such cultures are dried on milk, sugar, starch, flour or similar porous and absorbing material. Starters

are usually guaranteed only for a certain length of time, from one to twelve months. The advantage of the dry culture is its better keeping qualities. Liquid cultures produce substances harmful to themselves, and die rapidly after a short time, while the dry cultures show little change.

The resistance of pathogenic bacteria to desiccation is of considerable importance in the spreading of contagious diseases. Many pathogenic bacteria die after desiccation of a few hours to a few days, and spreading of such diseases by dust is highly improbable. Protozoa of soil decrease in number by drying, but all are not killed.

CHAPTER II.

INFLUENCE OF TEMPERATURE.

Temperature, as well as moisture, is one of the most important factors of life. It is so important that the most highly developed animals protect themselves by a very complicated mechanism of regulation against changes of temperature; the life processes of such animals will take place at a temperature nearly constant from birth to death. This necessitates a distinct difference in the metabolism of warm-blooded animals and all other organisms. The metabolism of the warm-blooded animals takes place at a constant temperature. The required amount of food is constant except for the part that is used for heating the body; at lower temperatures, more heat-producing material is used and the result is that warm-blooded animals require more food, the lower the temperature. All other organisms, reptiles as well as bacteria, have the temperature of their environment and the decrease of temperature will decrease the intensity of metabolism as it retards any other chemical process. The lower the temperature, the less food is required by all lower organisms.

There are, of course, limits to the favorable influence of high temperature. Growth and metabolism of microörganisms will increase with a rising temperature to a certain point, called the *optimum temperature*, and beyond this point the rate of growth will fall off rapidly and soon cease entirely. The highest temperature at which growth can take place is called the *maximum temperature*. Correspondingly, the *minimum temperature* of an organism is the lowest point at which growth can take place.

THE OPTIMUM TEMPERATURE which allows the fastest growth will be quite different for different species. Groups of bacteria are known which develop only at very high temperatures and others for which room temperature is too high. The temperature requirement is largely dependent upon the natural habitat of the organisms. The bacteria of the polar sea and of a lagoon near the equator will very probably have different optimum temperatures because of the acclimatization and selection which has been taking place for centuries.

The great majority of bacteria and related organisms, in fact of all living organisms, has its optimum temperature between 20° and 40.° The optimum temperature of an organism is generally somewhat higher than the average temperature of its natural habitat. This will be in most instances between 10° and 38°. A few examples will illustrate this. The bacteria of animal diseases are accustomed to body temperature and grow best at 37° to 40°. The organisms found in soil are of various natures. Since good soil in summer under the direct radiation of the sun quite often reaches high temperatures, a great number of soil bacteria will have their optimum nearer 40° than 30°. The ordinary lactic bacteria of milk and many of the water bacteria have their optimum near 30°. Most of the common molds grow best between 20° and 30°. Only very few can grow at body temperature. The optimum temperature of some water bacteria is quite low, the best-known example being perhaps the photogenic bacteria (page 129).

The following table shows the data obtained for a few microörganisms.

Species	Temperatures		
	Minimum	Optimum	Maximum
Penicillium glaucum	1.5°	25°–27°	31°–36°
Aspergillus niger	7°–10°	33°–37°	40°–43°
Saccharomyces cerevisiæ I	1°–3°	28°–30°	40°
Saccharomyces pasteurianus I	0.5°	25°–30°	34°
Bacterium phosphoreum	below 0°	16°–18°	28°
Bacillus subtilis	6°	30°	50°
Bacterium anthracis	10°	30°–37°	43°
Bacterium ludwigii	50°	55°–57°	80°

THE MINIMUM TEMPERATURE or the lowest limit of growth is usually farther from the optimum than the maximum temperature. It will vary with the organisms just as do the other cardinal points. But there is a natural limit drawn by the freezing-point of the nutrient liquid. Not all organisms can grow at such low temperatures, in fact the greater number does not develop below 6° to 10°. Those that can grow near the freezing-point will be inhibited by the solidification of the water in the nutrient medium, for if the water is frozen, food cannot diffuse into the cells and

therefore all life processes are checked. If freezing is prevented by adding salts or other soluble substances which lower the freezing-point, growth may continue even below 0°. Milk freezes at about —0.5°. Bacteria are found to multiply in it as long as it is not entirely solid. A certain yeast multiplied slowly in salted butter kept at about —6°.

The number of microörganisms that developed at the freezing-point was found to be

in 1 c.c. of market milk, up to 1,000 germs.
in 1 c.c. of sewage, up to 2,000 germs.
in 1 g. of garden soil, up to 14,000 germs.

THE MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE is usually about 10° to 15° higher than the optimum. The development of microörganisms above the optimum temperature is not quite normal; there is a great tendency toward involution forms. The mycelium of molds grown near the maximum temperature appears unhealthy and pathogenic bacteria lose part of their virulence. This loss of virulence is made use of in the preparation of attenuated cultures for vaccines.

The maximum temperature varies with different species of bacteria. Most bacteria do not grow above 45°, but with some the maximum temperature is considerably lower. *Bact. phosphoreum* dies if exposed for a few hours at 30°; others may require still lower temperatures. The average organisms found in water, soil, milk, and the body, which have their optimum near 30° to 38°, do not grow higher than about 45°. There are very noticeable exceptions to these, such as the physiological group known as thermophile bacteria.

These extraordinary organisms have their maximum between 70° and 80°, a temperature which coagulates albumin. Corresponding to the high maximum the thermophiles have a very high optimum, and the minimum lies with most of these species above 30°. These organisms are found in soil, sewage, ensilage and occasionally in milk. They find the temperature suitable for their life only under extraordinary circumstances, as in fermenting manure piles, in silos, in self-heating hay and similar organic material that develops a high temperature by fermentation. Some hot springs have a very remarkable flora of thermophile bacteria.

BIOLOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CARDINAL POINTS OF TEMPERATURE.—The importance of the temperature requirements of certain organ-

isms to the rôle they play in nature can be illustrated by a few examples. Most molds cannot cause disease in man and warm-blooded animals because their maximum temperature is below the body temperature. Exceptions are some *Aspergilli* and *Mucors*. Pathogenic microörganisms must have their optimum temperature coincide with that of their host.

Organic substances may undergo a different change at different temperatures. The biochemical changes in soil may not be the same in northern Canada and near the Gulf of Mexico. Even the warm and cold season of the same climate is apt to change not only the rate of decomposition but possibly the products. Perhaps the most striking example in this respect is the decomposition of ordinary market milk kept at different temperatures. Such milk contains a great variety of microörganisms; at various temperatures different types will predominate, while the remainder are retarded or inhibited by unfavorable temperature conditions and by the products of the dominant type of bacteria. If milk is kept at about the freezing-point, only a few organisms will develop slowly, but after a certain time their number will increase to many million cells per c.c. There is, however, no apparent change; no acid or deterioration can be discovered by the taste though chemical analysis proves the presence of hydrogen sulphide and ammonia. Between 15° and 25°, milk will sour in about thirty-six to forty-eight hours, giving a firm curd of an agreeable flavor without whey or gas; later *Oidium lactis* destroying the acid develops on the surface. Near body temperature the milk will lopper in twenty-four hours, the curd is usually contracted, a large quantity of whey is extruded, and much gas is produced by *Bact. aerogenes* and *B. coli*. The odor is disagreeable and later butyric acid is produced; eventually the lactic acid increases further by the action of *Bact. bulgaricum*. If kept above 50° the milk usually keeps for twenty-four hours, but after that a decomposition by thermophile bacteria begins which is either an acid fermentation followed by digestion or a complete putrefaction, depending upon the species of thermophile organism that happens to be in the milk sample. Thus there is in the same substance, containing the same organisms at the start, four entirely different types of decomposition induced only by the difference of temperature.

This indicates the importance of temperature regulation in the fermentation industries. Even pure cultures may give different products if working at different temperatures. Cream ripened with a pure culture starter at too high a temperature will have a sharp acid flavor. The cold

curing of cheese has become a very common practice because of the much improved flavor. Bioletti claims that the value of the dry California wines would be doubled if the fermentation were carried on generally at a lower temperature.

In the chapter on enzymes it was stated that the fermentations were due to enzymes which are independent of the cell after they are once produced. The question arises whether the optimum temperature of growth coincides with the optimum temperature of fermentation. Too little is known as yet about the nature of enzymes to make definite statements.

END-POINT OF FERMENTATION.—Another question is the relation between the end-point of fermentation and the temperature. Of the few data existing, many indicate that at a lower temperature the final fermentation goes farther than at a higher temperature. Müller-Thurgau found that under exactly the same conditions with the temperature as the only varying factor the following final amounts of alcohol were produced by a pure culture of yeast.

at 36°	3.8 per cent alcohol.
at 27°	7.5 per cent alcohol.
at 18°	8.8 per cent alcohol.
at 9°	9.5 per cent alcohol.

Concerning the lactic fermentation some investigators find no difference in the end-point, while others obtained results similar to the results with alcohol. With three strains of *Bact. lactis acidi* were obtained after thirty-four days,

	A.	B.	C.	
at 37°	0.89 per cent	0.87 per cent	0.60 per cent	of lactic acid.
at 30°	1.00 per cent	0.96 per cent	0.81 per cent	of lactic acid.
at 18°	1.08 per cent	1.06 per cent	0.88 per cent	of lactic acid.
at 6°	0.70 per cent	0.73 per cent	0.62 per cent	of lactic acid.

These results are quite logical and perhaps can be explained by the recognized experience that all products of fermentation tend to check the process of fermentation, and that any chemical product or substance acts the more vigorously upon any life process the higher the temperature. The same amount of alcohol that will still allow a slow fermentation at 10° may check the fermentation entirely at 20°. Naturally the rate of

fermentation in the beginning will be higher at the higher temperature but the end-point is lower. The end-point of the lactic cultures A, B, and C at 6° is probably not final, because thirty-four days is a short time of growth at so low a temperature. Above the optimum the rate of decomposition will decrease rapidly with the rising temperature and the end-point will also be lower. As already mentioned above, pathogenic bacteria lose to some extent their virulence, that is, the power of producing disease, if grown above their optimum.

FREEZING.—The discussion of the relation of temperature to microörganisms has so far considered only the temperatures within the limits of growth. However, the temperatures below the minimum and above the maximum are also of greatest importance. If bacteria are cooled below their minimum temperature they do not die immediately (except a few thermophile bacteria). They remain alive in a dormant condition ready to multiply as soon as the temperature rises. Even the freezing of a liquid will not kill them immediately. Of course, they cannot multiply in ice, because they have no water, consequently no food, and they cannot thaw the ice to get their water and food for lack of body temperature of their own. As long as liquids are frozen solid the bacteria in them will remain dormant much like dried organisms, and like them their number will decrease very slowly. If ice has been kept frozen many months, it may be sterile, while the fresh ice has nearly as many bacteria as the water it came from. An example is given in the following table relevant to the number of bacteria in frozen milk (after Bischoff).

Milk kept at 3° to—7°.

Freshly frozen	200,000 bacteria per c.c.
After 1 day	105,500 bacteria per c.c.
After 2 days	72,300 bacteria per c.c.
After 3 days	62,000 bacteria per c.c.
After 4 days	46,400 bacteria per c.c.
After 7 days	44,000 bacteria per c.c.
After 14 days	40,500 bacteria per c.c.
After 21 days	30,300 bacteria per c.c.
After 35 days	22,500 bacteria per c.c.
After 49 days	14,200 bacteria per c.c.

The table shows plainly that it is impossible to sterilize milk by freezing, but as long as it is frozen it will keep; there is no possibility of any microörganisms decomposing a frozen liquid, for the organisms need

water above all. If food substances change in cold storage (and some food products do deteriorate), this must be either due to changes other than microbial or the material was not completely frozen as is probably the case with salted butter.

After bacteria are once frozen, they do not seem to be affected by any lower temperature. Macfadyen and Rowland found that they tolerate very low temperatures remarkably well. Many bacteria were not killed by a twenty-hours' exposure to the temperature of liquid hydrogen (−252°). Yeasts are not quite so resistant and the mycelium of most molds is easily destroyed by freezing, while the spores are hardier.

THERMAL DEATH-POINT.—Heating above the maximum temperature is decidedly harmful to microörganisms; if the exposure to such unsuitable conditions is prolonged for a certain length of time, it results in the death of the organism. The length of time required to kill a certain organism will depend mainly upon how high the temperature is above the maximum. A few degrees above this point, it will take several or even many hours to kill the organism; the higher the temperature the shorter the time. An exposure to 10° to 20° above the maximum takes generally but a few minutes. It can be stated generally that the lower the maximum temperature the more easily is an organism destroyed by heat. It is customary to speak of the thermal death-point of an organism as the lowest temperature which will kill it within ten minutes. (Instead of this time adopted by the Society of American Bacteriologists, some investigators prefer one or five minutes as the standard time.)

The thermal death-point does not depend upon the species and the temperature only. It varies with the age of the culture since older cells are less resistant than younger ones especially if heated in their own products. The medium in which the organisms are heated is also of great significance. The fact that acid liquids, as fruit juices, are more easily sterilized than neutral meat or vegetables is largely due to a chemical (poisonous) action of the acids upon bacteria. But the greater resistance of tubercle bacteria in sputum compared with those suspended in salt solution cannot be so readily accounted for.

A necessary factor for the prompt destruction of organisms by heat is the presence of moisture. The resistance of dry organisms is remarkably higher than that of the same organisms in a liquid culture. The following table shows the death-point of yeast cells and spores in a dry and moist state.

Thermal Death-point of Dry and Moist Yeast.

Variety of yeast	Cells		Spores	
	Moist	Dry	Moist	Dry
Pale ale yeast	65°	95°–105°	65°–70°	115°–125°
Hofbräu yeast	55°	85°– 90°	65°	115°–120°
Saccharomyces pasteurianus	50°–55°	100°–105°	60°	115°

RESISTANCE OF SPORES.—The most resistant organisms to heat are the spores of certain bacteria. In the chapter on moisture requirements attention has been called to the great resistance of spores to drying. We find the same exceptional resistance to high temperatures. Boiling heat will not kill spores readily. Some bacterial spores can stand the temperature of 100° for several hours. In order to kill spores in one heating the temperature must rise to about 110° for fifteen to thirty minutes; this can be accomplished only by heating under pressure. This is not always advisable for sterilizing food substances. While vegetables are usually sterilized under pressure without losing much of their palatability, other foods like milk are changed materially in taste and appearance. To prevent these changes, discontinuous sterilization is sometimes used. This is based upon the following principle:

If milk or any other medium is heated to 100° for about fifteen minutes, all living cells of bacteria, yeasts and molds will be killed except a few spores of bacteria. After cooling, these spores will germinate under suitable conditions and the vegetative cells thus appearing instead of the resistant spores are easily killed in a second heating. A third heating is necessary in order to kill any vegetative cells which may have developed from spores not yet germinated before the second heating. It is essential to have the time between two heatings long enough to allow the germination of spores, and not too long to permit formation of new spores. It is customary to heat on three successive days for fifteen minutes each time. In this case, sterilization is usually complete, while a forty-five minutes' heating at once is not sufficient to guarantee sterilization. Among the substances that are very easily sterilized are cider and other fruit juices, while milk and soil are the most difficult materials to sterilize.

Dry spores will resist still higher temperatures than moist spores

Some dry spores survive an exposure to 140° to 150° for ten minutes. It requires a very high temperature to sterilize glass, cotton, gauze, and instruments with dry heat. A discontinuous sterilization of dry material is useless since the spores will not germinate without moisture, therefore their resistance remains unaltered.

The spores of molds are more resistant than the mycelium but, if moist, they all die at 100°. The dry mold spores can tolerate a somewhat higher temperature, but not as high as the spores of many bacteria. Yeast spores and yeast cells are very much alike in their resistance to heat. The table on page 160 shows hardly any difference between their resistance.

CHAPTER III.

INFLUENCE OF LIGHT AND OTHER RAYS.

Microörganisms in their natural environment are temporarily but not usually exposed to light. The organisms of decay, living in soil, in foods, in the intestines of animals, will only occasionally come in contact with the direct rays of the sun. Water bacteria and the organisms on the surface of plants and animals are more commonly exposed to the sun.

The influence of light varies with its intensity. Direct sunlight has a

FIG. 52.—These plates were heavily inoculated with *B. coli* and *B. prodigiosus* respectively and then were exposed, bottom side up, to the direct rays of the January sun, for four hours. On the instant of exposure, a figure O, cut from black paper was pasted to the plate shading the bacteria underneath. After one, two and three hours, the corresponding figures were pasted to the plates. The above picture was taken 24 hours after exposure, proving that three or four hours of direct sunlight weaken and may even kill bacteria. *B. prodigiosus* proved more sensitive than *B. coli*. (Original.)

very harmful effect upon microörganisms. Most bacteria are killed by direct sunlight in a few hours; the time depends upon the organism as well as upon the intensity of light; this again varies with the amount of moisture and dust in the atmosphere, with the time of the day and with the season; an absolute measure for the action of light cannot be fixed,

therefore, as easily as with the action of heat in the thermal death-point. The different colors of the spectrum do not act alike; the part of the spectrum from red to green is practically without influence upon microörganisms, while the blue light acts strongest and the intensity decreases in the violet and ultra-violet. In carrying on experiments with the influence of light, it must be remembered that glass absorbs ultra-violet rays, and further that the heating of the medium by direct radiation must be avoided.

Yeasts, molds, and bacteria and probably protozoa are equally sensitive to light. Even the spores of most bacteria do not show a greater resistance to light, while the mold spores are an exception. The colored

FIG. 53.—Phototropism of *Rhizopus nigricans*. The mold was grown on gelatin with diffused light coming from right side. (Original.)

spores of the *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus* and *Mucor* species can be exposed to light for a long time without being killed, but the colorless spores of *Oidium* and *Chalara* show no increased resistance. It is supposed that the pigment in mold spores is a protection against light. This is not true with the pigment of bacteria. The colored and colorless strains of pigmented bacteria show no difference in their resistance to light. Only one group, the so-called purple bacteria, is an exception. These peculiar organisms, many of which feed on hydrogen sulphide, seem to thrive better in light than without it. Direct sunlight does not kill them, it rather attracts them and they move toward the light. This is called

phototaxis or *heliotaxis*. The pigment, bacteriopurpurin, does not take the place of chlorophyl, however, since the bacteria do not produce oxygen in light and always need organic food.

The effect of light upon microörganisms is mainly brought about by a chemical change in the protoplasm, and also, to some extent, by a chemical change in the medium, namely the formation of a peroxide or a similar oxidizing agent.

The germicidal action of light is of importance in the purification of rivers. It is applied also in curing diseases of the skin, as lupus and

FIG. 54.—Two cultures of an *Aspergillus*, one grown in the dark, the other in diffused light, showing rings. (Original.)

leprosy, by exposing the diseased parts to a very concentrated light of the electric arc. This light contains plenty of blue and violet rays and is preferable to sunlight because it is always ready for use and its composition and intensity can be controlled easily.

Diffuse light is not nearly as harmful to microörganisms as direct sunlight. Long exposures to diffuse light will kill most bacteria, while molds are not at all sensitive. They rather like a very dim light, and many molds grown in a dark room with light only from one side will grow toward the light. This property, which is characteristic for all green plants, is called *heliotropism* or *phototropism* (Fig. 53). It has been found that molds produce mycelium mostly in the dark, while in daylight sporangia are produced mainly. This difference in the development

during the day and during the night accounts for the concentric rings which are quite commonly found in older mold colonies, and which indicate the age of the culture (Fig. 54). Similar rings are occasionally found with yeast and bacterial colonies, and are possibly due to the same influence of light.

X-RAYS.—Of other rays, the invisible X-rays and the radium rays have attracted the attention of bacteriologists and physiologists. It is known that the X-rays will destroy living tissue by long exposures; microörganisms cannot be considered less resistant. X-rays are used in the treatment of microbial diseases of the scalp and skin.

RADIUM RAYS are not so well known, and their bactericidal action is doubtful. The treatment of certain bacterial diseases has been attempted, but it has not been applied as generally as yet as the X-ray method. The sterilization of milk and possibly other foods by this method has been suggested, but the practical application is at present quite improbable because of the cost and the uncertainty of the results.

CHAPTER IV.

INFLUENCE OF ELECTRICITY.

The influence of electricity upon microörganisms is much less than one might perhaps expect, if the electricity as such is considered. A direct electric current passing through a nutrient medium will, of course, cause electrolysis which is usually manifested by the formation of acid on the positive pole and of alkali on the negative pole. The acid and alkali will kill microörganisms, as is discussed in the chapter on chemical influences. In this case, it is not the electricity itself that destroys the bacteria. It is also possible to kill bacterial cultures by passing an alternating current through the medium for some time. No electrolysis takes place in this case, still it is not the direct action of the current that acts upon the organisms, but rather the heat produced by the current passing through a medium of high resistance. If the culture is cooled properly the influence of the current is insignificant if at all noticeable. Whenever electricity is applied against microörganisms, the effect is considered electrochemical.

The electrical current is used in a very small way in the purification of sewage. The sewage passes between two iron plates which represent the two poles of a strong current. The electrical sterilization of milk has been patented. Wines are improved by electricity. The sterilization of drinking water by ozone is also an application of electricity, though of course the ozone once formed by the current acts as a chemical compound independent of its source.

CHAPTER V

INFLUENCE OF THE PHYSICAL STRUCTURE OF THE MEDIUM.

The physical structure of the medium has often a remarkable influence upon the development of microörganisms. Very little attention has been paid to this fact, as yet, and only a few instances are known where the structure of the medium is a deciding factor in the life of microörganisms. A few examples have already been mentioned. *Saccharomyces* will only exceptionally form spores on the surface of liquids while they are abundantly formed on the surface of a moist gypsum block. This may be accounted for by the better aeration of the yeast cells on gypsum. Another example, mentioned before, is the influence of the medium, on which bacteria are dried, upon their resistance against desiccation. Chemical action of the medium upon the bacteria cannot explain the differences since the same stratum in different structures gives different results. The great advantage of porous materials (soil, starch, charcoal, etc.) over smooth surfaces may be due to the very rapid and complete drying in the porous material and possibly to the power of absorbing gases of all kinds.

Recently, attention has been called to another example of considerable importance, namely, the difference of development of bacteria in soil and in solution. The processes of ammonia and nitrate formation do not run parallel in solution and in soil; this is not due to certain chemical compounds in the soil, since the result remains the same if the soil is substituted by the insoluble quartz sand; quartz has no absorptive powers, so this cannot account for the difference. The most probable explanation is the enormously increased surface of the water surrounding the soil particles. The surface exposed to oxygen is many times larger in a soil of a normal water content than in the same amount of water in a flask. In agreement with this explanation, nitrification, as a strict oxidation process, is greatly increased in soils with moderate moisture and is checked if the soil is saturated with water. Ammonia formation is usually favored in well-aerated soils, but occasionally it is decreased. This is probably due to the different types of ammonia-producers, some of them growing better with air, others growing better without it. Details will be given in the division on Microbiology of Soil.

CHAPTER VI.

INFLUENCE OF MECHANICAL EFFECTS.

PRESSURE.—The resistance of microörganisms to mechanical pressures is very great. Pressures of 3,000 atmospheres* will not kill the majority of bacteria in four hours. They are, however, weakened and some species will die. A specific difference between the molds, yeasts, and bacteria in this particular does not seem to exist. Of the organisms exposed to 2,000 atmospheres for ninety-six hours, *Bact. anthracis*, *Bact. pseudodiphtheriæ*, *M. pyogenes var. aureus*, *Oidium lactis* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiæ* survived, while seven other organisms lost the power of multiplication. Some of these were not dead, however, since they retained their motility for several days. It is noteworthy that high pressure will destroy one quality (multiplication) and not affect another (motility). Pigment-production and virulence of pathogenic bacteria were either diminished or lost completely. The resistance against high pressure is necessary for the organisms which cause the decay of organic matter at the bottom of the oceans. Vertebrates breathe oxygen in the form of gas or have at least an organ filled with gas (fish bladder); the volume of gas is changed considerably by slight changes of pressure; this will affect organisms depending on gas. Microörganisms do not require gas as such. They can absorb gases only in solution. A change of pressure therefore will not cause a change of volume, since liquids have a very small coefficient of compression.

The situation is entirely different if the liquid is not exposed to the pressure directly, but to compressed gas. In this case, the chemical effect of the gas is the deciding agent. The higher the pressure, the more gas will be dissolved in the culture medium. The fatal pressure under these conditions will vary as much as the fatal dose of an antiseptic; it depends upon the chemical qualities of the gas, upon the pressure (concentration), upon the temperature, and upon the organism.

Some data have been given already in the chapter on oxygen require-

*One atmosphere is 1 kg. pressure per square centimeter (or about 15 pounds per square inch).

ments. It was mentioned in that connection that *Bact. butyricum* cannot tolerate more than 0.65 per cent of the total oxygen (0.2 atm.); content—in air in other words, an oxygen pressure higher than 0.0013 atmospheres will kill the organism. The maximum pressure for *B. prodigiosus* was found to be about 5.4 to 6.3 atmospheres. Very few experiments have been made with other gases. Carbon dioxide at a pressure of 50 atmospheres retards the growth of bacteria in water and will sterilize it in twenty-four hours. Suspensions of pure cultures of *B. typhosus* and *Msp. comma* are killed by 50 atmospheres carbon dioxide pressure in three hours. Milk cannot be sterilized by this pressure but bacteria do not multiply. Carbonated milk has been recommended as a refreshing drink by several investigators. The ordinary market milk will keep about two days longer under the pressure of 10 atmospheres (150 pounds) than without pressure. If pasteurized it is said to keep for a week.

GRAVITY.—Gravity would have a great influence upon the growth of microörganisms in liquids if their specific gravity were much greater than that of water. This does not seem to be the case however. It has been estimated by accurate weighing to vary between 1.038 and 1.065. Very much higher results (1.3 to 1.5) have been obtained by centrifuging bacteria in salt solutions of varying specific gravity, but these data are not exact since the salt solution will diffuse into the cells and thus increase their weight. The specific gravity being very nearly that of the culture medium, it is plainly seen that gravity has but little influence. The microörganisms will live suspended in the liquid and sediment out very slowly. The slightest current in the liquid will carry them around and distribute them through the medium. The motility is of minor importance; the actual distance covered by motile bacteria has been measured, and under the most careful exclusion of currents in the liquid has been found to be about a millimeter in a minute for *B. subtilis*. This is very slow compared with the speed of the circulating water moved by changes of temperature or other incidental agents.

Yeast cells and other gas producers use the carbon dioxide as a vehicle. The gas bubbling up in the fermenting liquid keeps it constantly in motion and moves the yeast cells against gravity toward the surface where the gas escapes and lets the cells fall back to the bottom.

The production of scums and pellicles on the surface by organisms, which are heavier than the liquid they float on, is often accomplished by

small gas bubbles between the cells. In other instances, it may be just the floating of cells having oily surfaces.

The growth is influenced by gravity very little. The sporangia of molds are the only exception, growing decidedly away from the center of gravity (*negative geotropism*).

AGITATION.—For the majority of microörganisms, the quiet, undisturbed growth of the laboratory culture is the normal or the ideal one. Such cultures, if shaken for a considerable time, show a decrease of living organisms, and it is possible to sterilize cultures by continued shaking. The effect it not a simple mechanical breaking or tearing of the cells. The bacteria break up into the finest particles. This is also the case if cultures are exposed for several days to the trembling motion caused by the working of very heavy machines. There is no grinding or tearing effect but the cells break to pieces just the same.

A slight and slow agitation seems to be advantageous for many cultures, only continuous heavy motion proves harmful. Different organisms show wide variations in their resistance to agitation.

DIVISION III.

CHEMICAL INFLUENCES.

CHAPTER I.

STIMULATION OF GROWTH.

The influence of chemical substances upon microörganisms may be helpful or harmful, or not noticeable. As helpful must be considered above all the food compounds. Unless given in such large doses as to cause a physical or osmotic effect (see chapter I, page 147) they will stimulate the development. Other substances too, which are not food, can also act as stimulants. It is a recognized fact of long standing that many poisons in very small doses will stimulate. This applies to the most highly developed animals and plants as well as to microörganisms. Raulin noticed in 1869 that *Aspergillus niger* grew very much better in a nutrient solution if a small amount of zinc salt was added. He considered the zinc, therefore, as a necessary constituent of the mold cells. Alcoholic fermentation can be stimulated by metallic salts. It is believed by some physiologists that, as a law of nature, every substance that is injurious in a certain concentration is a stimulant in a lower concentration. A similar action of certain chemical compounds upon enzymes has been noticed, retarding in high concentrations, stimulating in weaker solution. An explanation for these facts cannot be given.

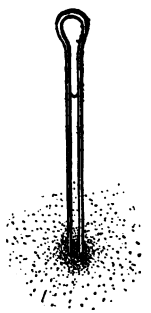


FIG. 55.—Chemotaxis. (*After Fischer.*)

CHEMOTROPISM AND CHEMOTAXIS.—Microörganisms manifest their preference for certain foods not by a stimulated growth alone. They also make efforts to obtain better food by growing or moving toward it, which is not a manifestation of a rudimentary intellect. Such reactions of microörganisms may be accounted for largely by chemical or osmotic forces.

In a solid medium the hyphæ of molds will grow toward the best source of food supply. This growth on account of chemical stimulation is called *chemotropism*, analogous to the *phototropism* or growth toward light. If some injurious compound is offered, the hyphæ will grow away from it. Thus we have to distinguish between positive and negative chemotropism. The motile organisms, bacteria as well as protozoa, demonstrate their preference for certain food compounds by swimming toward them. This is called *chemotaxis* (Fig. 55. Here also a positive and negative chemotaxis must be distinguished, the latter taking place if injurious substances are present. These reactions do not seem to be of much importance in the life of microörganisms.

CHAPTER II.

INHIBITION OF GROWTH.

POISONS, GERMICIDES, DISINFECTANTS, ANTISEPTICS, PRESERVATIVES.—A great number of inorganic and organic bodies will destroy life in comparatively weak solutions. These substances are called *poisons* if they are considered in their effect upon man and animals. In their application to microörganisms they are generally called *germicides* (germ-killers), or *disinfectants* if the emphasis is laid upon the prevention of infection rather than upon the actual killing of the microörganisms. Analogous to the general term germicides, the terms *bactericide* and *fungicide* are used occasionally. The term *antiseptic* means a prevention of sepsis which may be accomplished by checking the growth without necessarily killing all microörganisms. The meaning of the word *preservative* is practically the same, only the latter is used more commonly in relation to foods, feeding stuffs and preparations of similar origin while the word *antiseptic* is largely used in relation to microbial diseases. A strict line cannot be drawn between any of these definitions. A disinfectant, if diluted, becomes an antiseptic. A strong salt solution is an antiseptic for some organisms and a disinfectant for others. Of the above expressions, germicide is the most definite, but is not so commonly used as the others.

MODE OF ACTION.—The action of a poison upon the cell is generally considered an action upon the protoplasm. The poison is supposed to combine chemically with the cell plasma producing compounds which interfere with the continuation of the life processes and thus cause death. If the cell has been subjected to the action of the poison only a short time, it can be saved by removing the poison. Bacteria can be treated with mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) so that they will no longer develop if transferred to a fresh medium. If the mercuric chloride is removed from the cell by means of hydrogen sulphide, some of the organisms may be revived.

The action of a disinfectant upon a suspension of bacteria is not uniform. The largest percentage of cells will be killed in a short time,

while a few will remain resistant for a considerable length of time. This is the case with all disinfectants. The disinfecting process resembles in many ways a slow chemical process, as the inversion of cane sugar. In the beginning, the reaction is very rapid, because plenty of the cane sugar is present; after a certain time, the action is much slower, because

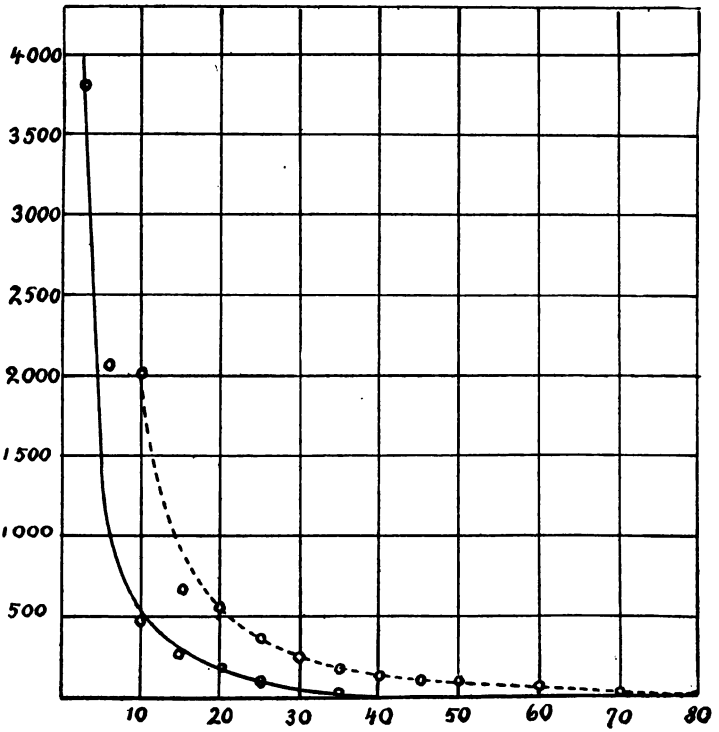


FIG. 56.—Curve of disinfection. Spores of *Bact. anthracis* in mercuric chloride solution. (*After Chick.*)

most of the sugar is decomposed; finally it seems to nearly cease. It is the same with disinfection; at first many bacteria are present, but they are killed rapidly and only a few are left. These few die much more slowly than the first ones, not because they were more resistant, but simply as a consequence of the chemical law that the less there is of the reacting substances the slower is the rate of reaction. The curves in

figure 56 show the numbers of living spores of *Bact. anthracis* suspended in mercuric chloride solution. The continuous solid curve gives the result in a 0.21 per cent solution, the dotted curve indicates a 0.11 per cent solution. The number decreases rapidly in the first few minutes, but the rate of dying is not constant, and even after a comparatively long time, a few spores remain alive.

Similar curves are obtained in the destruction of microörganisms by heat, by drying and by freezing.

Factors Influencing Disinfection.—The efficiency of a disinfectant depends upon several factors. Moisture is necessary—a dry poison has only a very slow action upon microörganisms. For this reason, absolute alcohol has not nearly the same germicidal power upon dry bacteria as diluted alcohol; the strongest poisonous effect is obtained by a 40 to 50 per cent solution; bacteria suspended in water die the more quickly the stronger the alcohol. The necessity of moisture is further demonstrated in the sterilization with gases, as with formaldehyde. The effect of formaldehyde gas without the provision of a very moist atmosphere is surprisingly weak.

The temperature is also quite an important factor in the study of disinfectants. Since poisoning is supposed to be a chemical effect, it must be expected that the poisoning process like other chemical processes will take place faster at a higher temperature. This is actually the case. It is possible to cool a disinfectant solution to the extent that it is only an antiseptic. On the other hand, it is easily seen that above the optimum temperature, where the growth is not very vigorous, and when the disinfecting power of the poison is increased considerably by the higher temperature, a very small amount of poison will have a very strong germicidal effect. The combination of high temperatures with a disinfectant has been suggested as a means of sterilizing foods. This has been tried in the case of milk with hydrogen peroxide at 50° to 60°.

It makes a considerable difference whether the organisms which are tested with a certain disinfectant are in a culture with their food material, or suspended in water or salt solution without any food. It is very probable that part of the disinfectant is acted upon by the food products which are partly protein substances and are in many ways similar to the protoplasm of the bacterial cells. It is especially difficult to poison bacteria in blood, pus, or similar material. The sensibility of microörganisms in pure water is remarkable. Very small doses which would not be

considered efficient under any other condition, will destroy microörganisms in pure water.

The age of the culture and the stage of development will naturally change the resistance of a species materially. The old cultures which are past the culmination of growth will be much more sensitive to any poison unless a spore-producing organism is under test. In this case, we find a greatly increased resistance, similar to the increased resistance of spores against drying and heat.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF DISINFECTANTS is very difficult as long as we cannot explain completely the process of poisoning. It is impossible to arrange them according to the intensity of action, because the intensity of influence depends not only upon the disinfectant, but also upon the species of organisms. Some yeasts can resist ten times as much alcohol as certain bacteria. Formaldehyde is not nearly as strong an agent with molds as it is with bacteria. The disinfectant concentration of a poisonous substance is not absolute. The simplest method of grouping is by chemical structure and qualities. Of the following natural groups can be distinguished acids (inorganic and organic), metallic salts, hydrocarbons (aliphatic and cyclic), alcohols (aliphatic and cyclic), aldehydes, anæsthetics, essential oils, oxidizing agents and reducing agents.

The first three groups, acids, alkalies and salts, are distinguished from the rest as electrolytes; the strength of acids and alkalies (chemically speaking) is measured by the degree of electrolytic dissociation. The disinfectant value follows largely the same law. The strongest acids in the chemical sense are also the strongest disinfectants. There are exceptions, however, where, besides the poisonous effect due to the degree of dissociation, there is a specific effect due to the chemical structure, as in the case of nitrous, salicylic and hydrocyanic acids. The same is true of alkalies. With metallic salts, the action will depend mainly upon the metal in solution, but the electrolytic dissociation is also of importance. NaCl will decrease the dissociation of mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) and decrease also its disinfectant power. Mercuric chloride dissolved in absolute alcohol is not dissociated. In this case, it has almost no action upon bacteria.

Acids are not commonly used as disinfectants, except in the household, but they play a certain rôle in nature The common fruits contain so much acid that bacteria cannot easily attack them; the decaying of fruit is almost exclusively due to molds which have a preference for acid media;

yeasts, too, are quite resistant to acid and can become accustomed to quite strong acids; it is customary in the manufacture of industrial alcohol from potatoes to prevent bacterial growth by adding about 1 per cent of lactic acid or very active lactic bacteria together with an acid-tolerant yeast, bred especially for this purpose. The acid in the stomach of man and animals plays an important rôle as a sterilizing agent for the food. Many microörganisms are killed in the stomach. In the household, the natural acidity of fruit helps in keeping canned fruit, preserves and jellies. Especially in heating, the acid together with the high temperature has a very strong germicidal effect. Vinegar is often used to preserve fruit and vegetables; in some parts of the country, meat is kept in buttermilk. Benzoic and salicylic acids are often used in the preservation of fruit and vegetables. Their poisonous influence is not so much due to the acid reaction but to the specific chemical character of these compounds.

Of the alkalies, only one is used extensively, namely, lime; quick-lime (CaO) is considered a valuable disinfectant for excreta in privy vaults; it is universally applied as a white-wash in stables, barns, poultry houses and similar buildings. Quite commonly, it is used as "milk of lime" (one part of slaked lime with four parts of water). It should be kept in mind that the calcium oxide unites with the carbon dioxide of the air and thus gradually loses its disinfecting power.

Of the metallic salts, many are well-known germicides. The most powerful disinfectant is mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) which is one of the standard disinfectants. It is generally used in a dilution 1:1000 which is sufficient to kill all vegetative cells as well as spores in a few minutes. Quite commonly, hydrochloric acid or salt is added, to prevent coagulation or precipitation of slimy or albuminous matter which would protect the enclosed bacteria from immediate contact with the poison. The addition of hydrochloric acid or any chloride decreases somewhat the disinfectant value for bacteria suspended in distilled water because it decreases the electrolytic dissociation.

Another disinfectant of remarkable strength is silver nitrate; it is not used commonly because of its high price. It also decomposes easily and leaves dark spots on the skin and clothes. Of the other metallic salts copper and iron sulphate are not used extensively, though recommended for the disinfection of feces. Zinc sulphate may be applied to mucous membrane the same as silver nitrate. Many other salts may be used

occasionally for disinfecting purposes, though the expense or undesirable qualities prevent their common application.

The alcohols are well known for their poisonous effects, but the value of ethyl alcohol as a disinfectant is usually overestimated. It takes quite strong alcoholic solutions, more than 20 per cent, to kill certain yeasts and the spores of some bacteria in less than a day, and a complete sterilization by alcohol in a few minutes cannot always be guaranteed even with 50 to 60 per cent solution. It has already been mentioned that desiccated organisms are very resistant to concentrated alcohol, more so than to a 50 per cent mixture. Methyl alcohol is weaker, the higher alcohols, especially amyl alcohol, are stronger disinfectants than ethyl alcohol. They all give good results in the presence of water while the absolute alcohols have scarcely any effect upon desiccated bacteria. None of these alcohols in whatever concentration they may be used, can be relied upon to kill bacterial spores.

Stronger germicidal effects can be obtained by the alcohols of the benzene group, of which phenol or so-called carbolic acid (C_6H_5OH) is the simplest representative. Phenol, like ethyl alcohol, is not as effective as is commonly believed. It is applied in solutions from 0.5 per cent to 5 per cent ordinarily, but it usually takes a long time even for the 5 per cent solution to kill vegetative cells as *Bact. tuberculosis* or *B. coli;* it is inefficient against anthrax spores. More powerful are the higher cyclic alcohols, of which the cresols are examples. They are used extensively as disinfectants and antiseptics. They are, together with phenol, coal-tar constituents and are sold commercially under many different names, either pure or mixed with soap or other disinfectants which make them emulsify readily in water. The cresols are almost insoluble in water, and not as effective in solutions as they are in emulsions. The disinfecting properties of tar come from the cresol contained in it.

Hydrocarbons are used only for laboratory experiments as very weak antiseptics. The aliphatic bodies, as methane, etc., which constitute a large part of coal gas, have but very little effect upon bacteria; the gas is used occasionally in place of hydrogen for growing anaerobic bacteria. Benzol, xylol, and toluol are antiseptics, if shaken frequently with the liquid to be protected, but they are not reliable as disinfectants. The same is true with the common anæsthetics, ether and chloroform. The high prices of these agents forbid their general use, but they are sometimes used for laboratory work.

The essential oils have a little more practical importance. Some of these are the main constituents of mouth washes, especially the oil of peppermint (menthol), of thyme (thymol), and of eucalyptus (eucalyptol). Their action is very weak, however. The volatile oils of spices have to be considered in the preserving of fruit, pickles, catsups, and other food products. Though the antiseptic value in general is insignificant, certain microörganisms are sensitive to certain spices. The bacteria of the mesentericus group are said to be suppressed entirely by quite small quantities of garlic, while others, like the lactic bacteria, are not affected at all. Cloves, cinnamon and alspice are the most efficient spices, while the disinfectant power of black and white pepper, and mustard is very small.

The most important disinfectant has not been mentioned, because it does not belong to any of the above groups. This is formaldehyde. Formaldehyde (HCOH) is a gas, soluble in water to the amount of 40 per cent at room temperature; it does not attack metal, clothing, woodwork, and is, therefore, preferable to many other disinfectants for sterilizing rooms. It kills spores of bacteria in a short time in a 1:1000 dilution. Its greatest importance lies, however, in its gaseous nature, because it can be applied to rooms and buildings by simply evaporating it. The saturated 40 per cent solution can be evaporated directly or by generating steam which passes through the formaldehyde solution; this latter method has the advantage of saturating the air with moisture, which increases the power of the formaldehyde gas. Formaldehyde can also be obtained in a dry form; it polymerizes to a white crystalline substance, paraformaldehyde ($(HCOH)_3$) which can be changed back to formaldehyde gas by gentle heating. This paraformaldehyde is commonly used instead of the liquid, because it is more easily handled and is quite inoffensive in its solid form, while the formaldehyde solution has a very penetrating odor and is exceedingly harmful to the mucous membrane of the respiratory organs.

Of the oxidizing agents, oxygen itself has already been mentioned. Though it is able to destroy certain anaerobic bacteria, it cannot be called a disinfectant. For this purpose, oxygen must be activated; such oxygen can be obtained in the form of ozone (O_3). It is formed in air under the influence of electric discharges and can be produced at a price low enough to allow its application for use in the sterilization of water. It has also been recommended for preservation of milk.

Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) resembles ozone in its chemical reactions;

it changes readily to H_2O+O, and this oxygen atom in the nascent state is quite effective as an oxidizing agent. For an antiseptic, it must be used in at least a 1 per cent solution, and for an absolutely reliable disinfectant a still higher concentration is required. It loses its disinfecting property easily because it is decomposed readily by the peroxidases of tissues and organic liquids as blood, milk and pus. It is used in the preservation of milk. Hydrogen peroxide is slowly decomposed by the katalase of milk thus disappearing completely.

Chlorine in its gaseous form is not used as a disinfectant, though its germicidal power is quite strong. The so-called "chloride of lime," manufactured by absorbing chlorine in slaked lime, gives in water hypochlorite and free chlorine; these substances are good germicides and chloride of lime is used in the disinfection of privy vaults, and other places in which it may be employed without injury.

Potassium permanganate is only incidentally used as a disinfectant. Its chemical qualities prevent an ordinary use.

Sulphurous acid, or sulphur dioxide (SO_2) was for a long time a standard disinfectant and is still used occasionally for fumigating rooms, stables, barns and out-buildings though it is substituted more and more by formaldehyde which can be applied almost as easily. The burning of sulphur is an extremely simple process, but it requires a moist air to disinfect properly, and under these circumstances it will attack metal, dyes of clothing and even the fiber itself.

DIVISION IV.

MUTUAL INFLUENCES.

INTRODUCTION.

The biological relations of microörganisms are of the greatest importance in nature. Pure cultures in nature are very rare and of exceptional occurrence; they are hardly ever found except in certain diseases of man, animals and plants. Generally, nature works with mixed cultures. All natural fermentations, decompositions and putrefractions are accomplished by a number of different species among which perhaps one dominates, but is influenced by the rest. The study of the mutual relations of microörganisms is in the very first stage as yet; practically all laboratory work is done with pure cultures. The experiences obtained with pure cultures are not sufficient to explain all microbial activity in nature.

There are many possibilities of mutual influence between different organisms. Generally three main cases are distinguished: *symbiosis*, where two organisms profit by the combination; *metabiosis*, where one profits by the other's action without benefiting the other in return, and *antibiosis*, where one organism injures the other. These cases cannot be separated strictly. The relations are not always constant through the entire development of the cultures; an originally beneficial influence may change to an injurious one in a few days. Many terms have been coined to designate all these various possibilities, but in order to avoid this multiplicity of more or less indefinite names for the various relations, the general term "*association*" has come into use, especially when the relationship is not well understood.

SYMBIOSIS.

Symbiosis is not very common among microörganisms, and it is difficult to find examples where true symbiosis exists through the entire development of both organisms. The association of lactic bacteria and *Oidium lactis* in milk is, for a certain period at least, a symbiosis. The

bacterium will produce only a certain amount of acid, and then it can grow no more because the acid is too strong; the mold will destroy the acid and thus gives the bacterium a chance for continued activity. The bacterium produces the acid which the mold likes; the mold in turn removes the excess acid which otherwise would check the bacterial activity.

True symbiosis is more common in the relation of microörganisms with higher plants and animals. The standard example in the plant kingdom is *Ps. radicicola* in the nodules of legumes, feeding on carbohydrates provided by the plant and furnishing the plant nitrogen from the air which the plant cannot assimilate directly. The typical example in the animal kingdom is *B. coli* in the intestine of animals, being nourished by the food of the animal and rendering the food more easily digestible.

METABIOSIS.

Metabiosis may be considered a one-sided symbiosis; two organisms live together, but only one is benefited, the other remains uninfluenced or later may be injured by the association; the latter case is the most common. In this relation, one usually prepares the food for the other. It has previously been mentioned that the metabolic products of one species serve as food for another species, thus breaking up the various organic compounds step by step to smaller and simpler molecules. Quite commonly, each step is accomplished by a different species of microörganism. Consequently, metabiosis is a very common occurrence among microörganisms.

The classical example is the two nitrifying bacteria: the nitrate bacterium is unable to oxidize ammonia, and depends entirely upon the nitrite bacterium to oxidize the ammonia to nitrite; then, and only then, can the nitrate bacterium grow.

The relation between yeasts and acetic bacteria is also very well known. The yeast ferments the sugar to alcohol, and then the acetic organisms oxidize the alcohol to acetic acid. The yeast is in no way helped by the acetic bacteria, while these could not form acetic acid from sugar readily. These bacteria depend upon the action of the alcohol-forming yeast. Other cases of metabiosis are found in the association of lactic bacteria with certain protein destroying organisms. The lactic bacteria often develop much better if the protein bacteria grow together with them or have grown previously in milk. Metabiosis does not require the growth

of the two associated organisms at the same time. The effect will be the same if first the one and later the other develops, and even after the first organism is killed or removed, its effect upon the pure culture of the second will still be noticed. This does not occur in the case of symbiosis.

One species can favor the development of another by other means than food provision or preparation. Certain bacteria cannot live in acid media, and molds or *Mycodermæ* destroying the acid will render possible the growth of these bacteria though they do not provide them with food. This is the case in the ripening of certain soft cheeses. Another example is the production of heat by fermenting organisms in manure, hay, ensilage, enabling the development of thermophile organisms. A very interesting and important problem is the growth of strictly anaerobic bacteria near the surface of liquids in association with some aerobic bacteria. How this is really possible cannot be satisfactorily explained. Though the aerobic bacteria continuously remove the oxygen from the water a certain amount will remain, sufficient to prevent the growth of the anaerobic bacteria under ordinary conditions. There seems to be a certain protective influence derived from the aerobic bacteria, the nature of which is unknown.

ANTIBIOSIS.

The standard examples of antibiosis are the alcohol production by yeast in sugar solutions and the acid production by lactic bacteria in milk. Fresh cider contains a large number of bacteria, yeasts and molds; some of these organisms cannot develop in the acid medium, but many will begin to grow. Some of the bacteria will produce or destroy acid, others may begin to work on the nitrogenous material of the cider, and the yeasts produce alcohol and carbon dioxide. The carbon dioxide will soon saturate the cider and begin to bubble up, thus removing the other gases. The molds will stop growing if the oxygen is taken away, but some of the bacteria may continue growing until the alcohol concentration checks their further development. They first cease to grow, then cease to produce acid and finally die, while the yeast is still continuing in the fermentation.

In the lactic fermentation of milk, *Bact. lactis acidi* combats all other organisms by a rapid production of lactic acid. Though it is present in fresh milk only in very small numbers, its rapid growth and the formation of acid which will check and even kill most other bacteria soon makes it the dominant organism in the flora of milk, and at the time of curdling,

it is often difficult to find any other organisms besides the lactic bacteria. In the preceding chapter was mentioned the metabiosis of certain protein-digesting bacteria with *Bact. lactis acidi.* This metabiosis can be considered as such only from the standpoint of the lactic organism. The protein bacterium is killed by the acid formed by the rapidly growing lactic bacteria. From the viewpoint of the protein bacteria, the relation is antibiosis. Another illustration of antibiosis is the acetic fermentation. The formation of acetic acid prevents the development of all bacteria and of most yeasts and molds.

In all these cases, the deciding agent is a well-known chemical compound. In other combinations, the principle is unknown. *Bact. lactis acidi* will check the growth of *B. subtilis* not only in milk where it forms acid, but also in sugar-free broth where acid production is impossible. Acetic bacteria act upon the yeast cells not only by means of the acetic acid produced, but also by some other, unknown agent, since vinegar is more injurious than the corresponding amount of pure acetic acid in water. A very remarkable organism is *Ps. pyocyanea;* it secretes a substance, *pyocyanase,* which will kill and dissolve the cells of other bacteria rapidly.

Parasitism, which would be classified under antibiosis, has not been found to exist among bacteria or yeasts; but we know of cases where one mold grows on the other; this is especially true with the largest representatives of the mucor family, which are often attacked and sometimes killed by smaller fungi.

PART III.

APPLIED MICROBIOLOGY.

DIVISION I.*

MICROBIOLOGY OF AIR.

CHAPTER I.

THE MICROÖRGANISMS OF THE AIR AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION.

The atmosphere is not the normal habitat of bacteria, for growth and multiplication cannot take place in it under ordinary conditions. The phrase "microörganisms of the air" is therefore somewhat ambiguous. The small size of microörganisms enables them to remain suspended for considerable periods when physical forces have separated them from the substrata on which they have developed.

MICROÖRGANISMS PRESENT IN THE AIR.—Molds, bacteria, and yeasts are all found in the air under certain conditions. The first two are usually relatively abundant, the latter are less common.

The common molds have adapted themselves for the most part to wind distribution. They bear spores that are small in size and with a surface that is not readily moistened. These spores are resistant to desiccation and light and remain viable for a considerable time even under unfavorable conditions. Furthermore, the fruiting bodies of many, though not all molds, show a distinct negative hydrotropism, *i.e.*, the mycelium remains in contact with the moist substratum while the threads which bear the spores rise at right angles to it. These latter are so sensitive that they can detect slight differences in the moisture content of the air and grow in the direction which will bring the spores into the driest

* Prepared by R. E. Buchanan.

situations. A slight current of air will detach the spores from these structures and carry them long distances.

Bacteria and yeasts lack the specific adaptations for wind distribution found in molds. The material upon which they have been growing must be dried and pulverized before they can be blown about. Many species produce spores or other resistant cells, and physiologically, are as well adapted for air distribution as are the molds.

Occurrence in the Air.—Microörganisms are found free in the air, attached to particles of dust, or enclosed in minute drops of water. Mold spores are commonly free or in unattached clusters. Bacteria and yeasts are usually associated with dust particles, frequently the pulverized substratum on which they have been growing. Not all dust particles have living organisms attached. It has been computed that in the air of London during a fog there is only one living organism for over thirty-eight millions of dust particles. Microörganisms are sometimes sprayed into the air with water. Droplets containing bacteria are thrown off in the saliva in coughing or in speaking, and from the surface of fermenting liquids on which bubbles are bursting. When the drop is small enough, the air currents keep it in suspension and the water soon evaporates and frees the organism. This brings about the condition first discussed, free bacteria in the air. The decrease in weight and size incident to this loss of water probably accounts for the fact that the so-called "infectious droplets" are sometimes carried for considerable distances.

How Microörganisms Enter the Air.—In comparatively few instances do microörganisms possess mechanical devices for projecting the spores or other cells into the air for wind distribution. Usually the organism is passive and is freed only by air currents or by mechanical agitation. Some molds, as has been stated, release their spores even in the presence of moisture, so that complete desiccation is unnecessary for their dispersal. Bacteria and yeasts, on the other hand, are not usually given off from moist surfaces. Only when dry and pulverized can the bacterial medium be readily blown about. Hansen found that in the immediate vicinity of a heap of decaying malt, the air was comparatively free from bacteria. Winslow has shown that sewer air is frequently practically free from bacteria although the surface with which it comes in contact teems with bacterial life. Mechanical agitation often throws large numbers of organisms into the air. Moving hay and straw, grooming animals, sweeping a floor or carpet will multiply the dust and bacterial

content of the air many times. In a similar manner, tiny germ-holding droplets may be scattered by the splashing of sewage or of fermenting or putrefying liquids, and in speaking, sneezing or coughing.

CONDITIONS FOR SUBSIDENCE OF BACTERIA.—The length of time during which an organism may remain suspended in the air is dependent upon several factors. Small particles settle out more slowly than large for the reason that as the size of an object is decreased, the surface area decreases less rapidly proportionately than the volume. The lifting effect of air currents depends upon the ratio of surface area to volume and specific gravity. The smaller the object, therefore, the greater is the resistance to subsidence. Consequently, bacteria usually settle out of air very slowly if free in a quiet atmosphere. The time of suspension is determined also by the velocity of the air currents. While considerable velocity may be necessary to dislodge microörganisms and bring them into suspension, a very slight air current will sustain them. Winslow has found that a current of seventeen inches per minute is sufficient to sustain *B. prodigiosus*. The relative humidity of the air is also an important factor. In a supersaturated air solid particles, such as bacteria, become nuclei of condensation for water and quickly settle out. When dust is present in considerable quantities, and certain electrical or moisture conditions exist, flocculation occurs and the larger bodies so formed subside rapidly. The character and abundance of surfaces with which the suspended particles may come in contact also play an important part. Moist surfaces are much more effective in retaining particles than those which are dry.

DETERMINATION OF THE NUMBER OF BACTERIA IN THE AIR.—The number of bacteria in the air is frequently determined by exposing open petri dishes of gelatin or agar in different places for definite periods. This is a comparative quantitative method only. The number of colonies developing upon these plates will give the number of dust particles having living spores or cells upon them that fall in the given area under the conditions of the experiment. Evidently this is of value only for rough comparative work as constantly shifting currents of air usually introduce great errors. A somewhat more accurate method is to draw measured volumes of air into a flask, the bottom of which is covered with a layer of gelatin or agar. The colonies which develop represent the number of organisms which settle out from the given volume. More accurate results still may be obtained by drawing measured volumes of

air in small bubbles through liquid gelatin. Practically all of the particles will be retained and the number of colonies which develop may be counted. This method is sometimes modified by drawing the air through a definite volume of water, care being taken to insure sufficient contact of air and water to remove all dust particles. A proportionate part of the water is then plated and the number of organisms estimated. Air is sometimes drawn through a filter made of sugar, sodium sulphate, or sodium chloride, and this material then dissolved in water and plated. Sand, asbestos, glass, etc., are sometimes used as air filters, then thoroughly washed, and the wash water plated.

Relative quantitative examination of the air is of more historical than practical importance. It has been useful in the development of the germ theories of fermentation and of disease and in overthrowing the theory of spontaneous generation. There is so little ordinarily to be learned by a study of the air flora that a comparison of plates exposed directly will usually suffice. Where more accurate results are desired, one must resort to one of the filtration methods discussed above.

Qualitative determinations of the species of air organisms are not often made. When necessary it may be done by simple examination of the colonies developed on the plates or by animal inoculations made from the water used in the air filter. It is sometimes necessary to vary the composition of the medium used in order to favor the development of certain types of organisms desired, for example, a higher percentage of molds will be found and a more luxuriant development will take place if wort agar or acid gelatin is used.

Number of Bacteria in the Air.—The number of bacteria in the air is determined by a variety of conditions. The velocity of air currents and the nature of the surface with which these currents will come in contact, are probably most important. Bacteria are usually more abundant on quiet days in the air of buildings than out of doors, but on windy days the reverse is true. They are often more abundant in cities than in the country. Fewer are found at high altitudes and over large bodies of water. Frankland found that there are fewer in winter than in summer. They are washed from the air during rains. Bright sunlight destroys many. The nature of the soil and the vegetation covering it has a marked influence. The following figures from various authors are appended to serve as an index to what may be expected in the air content of bacteria.

Locality	Number of organisms per cubic meter	Observer
Outdoor air, Boston	100–150 bacteria. 50–75 molds.	Sedgwick and Tucker
Open air	100–150 bacteria.	Fischer.
Open field	250	Uffelman
Seacoast	100	Uffelman
Mountain altitude, 200 meters	0	Pasteur.
Mont Blanc	4–11	Ellis.
Spitzbergen (Arctic Regions)	0	Levin.
Middle of Paris	4,000	Ellis.
Paris Street	3,500	Fischer.
Tailor's Room in Whitechapel	17,000	Ellis.
Boot Workshop	25,000	Ellis.

SPECIES OF ORGANISMS IN THE AIR.—*Penicillium* is the most common mold isolated from the air. Next in importance are *Mucor*, *Rhizopus*, and *Aspergillus* in the order given. In addition to these a considerable number of species of hyphomycetous molds are occasionally found. *Torulæ*, but not true yeasts, are usually common. Bacteria are either spore-bearing soil bacilli or cocci. Of the former, *B. subtilis*, *B. mycoides*, and related forms are ubiquitous. *Sarcina lutea* and *Sarcina aurantiaca* and certain other chromogenic cocci are to be found in almost every plate exposed. Since the air does not have a true flora, the species as well as the number of bacteria present must depend entirely upon the character of the environment.

CHAPTER II.

MICROBIAL AIR INFLUENCE IN FERMENTATION, DISEASES, ETC.

AIR AS A CARRIER OF CONTAGION.—There are many popular misconceptions of the influence of air upon health. Experience early taught that exposure to the night air in certain localities or to swamp air during certain seasons was generally followed by disease. Naturally, the air itself was held responsible. We know now that certain fevers, malaria, etc., are caused in every instance by infection with specific microörganisms and that these organisms are not usually carried by the air but by insects, such as the mosquito, in water and food. Nor can the emanations from decaying organic matter or sewer gas itself be held to produce disease directly. Before the establishment of the germ theory of disease, leading sanitarians held that sickness was induced by the gases from decaying organic matter, by the effluvia from cess-pools and by sewer gas. However important the places named may be in harboring disease microörganisms, we have learned that the air itself rarely acts as a carrier. Sewer gas has been shown to be unusually free from bacteria. Hazen says, "After many years of experience and long continued investigation, there is not the slightest reason to believe that infectious diseases are carried by the air of sewers."

Undoubtedly the air does play some part in the carrying of disease germs. In certain diseases, as the exanthemata (smallpox, measles, etc.), the infecting agent may be present on the dry skin and may be blown about and inhaled. This means, however, is not established. In certain nasal, tracheal, and pulmonary infections, the organisms may be spread through speaking, sneezing, and coughing, for the infectious droplets, as has been seen, remain suspended for a time in the air. Pyogenic cocci are present in the mouth and care must be used in surgical operations that the mouth is so protected that none of these organisms gain entrance to wounds. Rarely, if ever, are intestinal infections, as typhoid or cholera, spread through the air. We may therefore conclude that air is of secondary importance as a carrier of infection. It

may be of importance in a crowded work-room, but even under these conditions it is probable that transmission of infection comes about more frequently through actual contact or through food and drink.

ORGANISMS OF THE AIR AND FERMENTATIONS.—A uniform inoculation with soil bacteria such as produce the nodules on the roots of legumes is obtained over considerable areas through the action of the wind in blowing dust particles. The bacterial flora of milk is to some extent dependent upon air currents as is also the development of the molds necessary to the proper ripening of cheese, such as the Camembert. Acetic, butyric, and other ferments are likewise distributed in this manner. The organisms responsible for putrefaction and decay, the molding and spoiling of foods are wind-borne.

FREEING AIR FROM BACTERIA.—Air is most commonly freed from bacteria by sedimentation, for this is the ultimate fate of most dust particles. We have seen that they gradually subside in a quiet atmosphere. When large quantities of pure air are required, dust and bacteria may be removed by passage through a spray of water or through various types of filters, such as cotton, glass, wool, etc. A familiar example of this type of filtration is the laboratory use of cotton plugs in test-tubes. It is sometimes necessary to resort to fumigation to destroy the organisms of the air when an undesirable species is present.

DIVISION II.

MICROBIOLOGY OF WATER AND SEWAGE.

CHAPTER I.*

MICROÖRGANISMS IN WATER.†

Water is necessary in the life of man. Besides its use as a beverage, for cooking, and all domestic purposes, it is largely used in many manufacturing industries; therefore, the study of its chemical and biological content is one of the most important features of modern hygiene. All natural waters contain microörganisms, which gain entrance from many sources.

Under the influence of the sun, sea water evaporates and forms a water vapor, which we call clouds; and these, driven by the wind over the land, are precipitated as rain and in the form of snow or hail.

Most of this water collects from vast areas into brooks, streams, rivers, lakes, or in subterranean streams, and finally reaches the sea whence it came.

The water vapor arising from the sea or land contains no organisms; but as soon as the vapor is precipitated microörganisms find their way into it. These come from the air and from the soil. Some of them find in water sufficient nutriment for their life and growth; and, because of their constant presence and evident ability to thrive in water, they are sometimes spoken of as belonging to the "*water flora.*" Others, such as the soil bacteria, are found only at certain seasons, as after rain or during flood-

* Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

† For specific details regarding methods of analysis and a fuller presentation of the subject, readers may consult any of the following excellent books:

1. Savage, W. G.: The Bacteriological Examination of Water Supplies, London, H. K Lewis, 1906.
2. Horrocks, W H.: An Introduction to the Bacteriological Examination of Water, London, J. and H. Churchill, 1901.
3. Prescott and Winslow: Elements of Water Bacteriology, 2nd Ed. New York, Wiley & Sons, 1908.

time, and flourish only for a time; while some few, such as intestinal organisms that find their way into water, survive for only a short period.

Classes of Bacteria Found in Water.

The bacteria found in water are here roughly divided into: (a) natural water bacteria; (b) soil bacteria from surface washings; (c) intestinal bacteria, usually of sewage origin. But there is no strict dividing line between these three groups; for some organisms belonging to the water flora are found in the soil, and *vice versa*. Water draining from manured land frequently contains intestinal organisms. The division, however, is sufficient for all practical purposes.

Natural Water Bacteria.—The natural water bacteria are generally regarded as harmless to man. These organisms are frequently numerous in river, lake, and all surface waters; certain species predominate at one season, and disappear at another. Some of the best known are mentioned below. Several investigators have grouped the bacteria found in water into classes according to their biochemical properties. Where groups are subsequently referred to, the classification is that used by Jordan and followed by many other workers.

B. fluorescens liquefaciens, Group V, together with some closely allied varieties, is probably more frequently found in water than any other form, and is easily recognized by the green fluorescence and liquefaction it produces in gelatin.

B. fluorescens non-liquefaciens, Group VI, as the name implies does not liquefy gelatin, but produces characteristic colonies with a fluorescent shimmer, is often very abundant in river waters, and is representative of a group comprising *B. f. longus, B. f. tenuis, B. f. aureus*, and *B. f. crassus*.

Certain organisms which liquefy gelatin and acidify milk—classed by Jordan in his Group VIII—are quite common at certain seasons. Some of these are soil organisms and are closely related to the proteus group; and some of them are *B. liquefaciens, B. punctatus, B. circulans*.

Chromogenic bacilli and cocci (Groups XIII, and XIV) are often present in water. Of those producing red coloring matter, the well-known *B. prodigiosus* is the type of the group; others are *B. ruber, B. indicus, B. rubescens*, and *B. rubefaciens*. Several yellow and orange organisms are commonly found, such as *B. aquatilis, B. ochraceus, B. aurantiacus, B. fulvus*, etc.

At certain times, particularly in river and brook waters, organisms

producing violet pigment are quite common. *B. violaceus* or *B. janthinus*, as it is sometimes called, is the prevailing type; others are *B. lividus*, *B. amethystinus*, and *B. coeruleus*.

The chromogenic cocci produce either orange or yellow pigment, and as a rule are not numerous in water. *Sarcina lutea* is the most common species.

Non-chromogenic cocci (Group XV) are more frequent. *M. candicans*, *M. nivalis*, *M. aquatilis*, are non-liquefying forms, and *M. coronatus* is the type of those which liquefy gelatin.

Soil Bacteria from Surface Washings.—During times of flood, high water, and after rains, numerous soil organisms are found in natural waters; and occasionally certain species persist for a considerable time. Among the commonest species is *B. mycoides*, with its characteristic rhizoid colony; also *B. subtilis*, *B. megatherium*, and *B. mesentericus vulgatus*, with its allied varieties; likewise *B. m. fuscus* and *B. m. ruber*—all belonging to Jordan's Group VII, and having many characters in common, such as characteristic colonies, followed by liquefaction when growing in gelatin, production of spores, etc.

Cladothrix dichotoma, one of the thread bacteria, easily recognized on gelatin plates by the brown halo that surrounds the colony, is often found in fresh and stagnant water, and in most soils. It seems to flourish wherever there is much organic matter.

These are the soil organisms most often found when beef peptone gelatin is used for isolating purposes; but if other media are used, a different flora appears, and we find nitrifying organisms, yellow chromogens, etc.

Intestinal Bacteria, Usually of Sewage Origin.—*Proteus Group.*—There are several groups of sewage organisms found in impure water; some of these are very abundant in crude sewage, but are not found in such relatively large numbers in contaminated water. Jordan's Group III contains the organisms belonging to the large proteus group, the principal species being *B. vulgaris*, *B. zenkeri*, *B. mirabilis*, *B. zopfii*, the sewage proteus of Houston, and *B. cloacæ*. All these are frequently found in impure water, and in sewage. In the latter Houston has found as many as 100,000 per c.c. All these organisms are motile, liquefy gelatin, and produce gas in dextrose and saccharose broth, and little or none in lactose; reduce nitrates, curdle milk, produce indol, and give a fecal, disagreeable odor in broth or other media.

Sewage Streptococci.—The streptococci found in sewage are probably

similar to those found elsewhere; but their appearance in contaminated water may be regarded as indicative of recent sewage contamination, because the bulk of the evidence available seems to show that they are delicate organisms, which rapidly die outside of the body. While it is easy to ascertain their presence in polluted water, it is almost impossible to enumerate them; and they do not furnish such good evidence of sewage pollution as the colon bacillus. They may be said to furnish valuable confirmatory evidence of sewage contamination.

B. Enteritidis Sporogenes.—This resistant, spore-bearing organism is usually present in the intestinal tract of man; is found in sewage, milk, and dust; and occurs in foodstuffs, such as wheat, oatmeal, rice, etc. On account of its ubiquity and the resistance of its spores, it cannot be considered a good indicator of excretal pollution.

B. Coli.—The presence of this organism in potable water is generally accepted as the best bacterial indicator of sewage pollution. It must be remembered, however, that there are many varieties of this organism, to which certain investigators have given specific names, even when the differences from the type organism have been very slight. It may be well to mention some of these, to avoid confusion in the mind of the reader. The true colon bacillus, *B. coli*, or *B. coli communis*, or *B. coli communis verus*, is a short bacillus with rounded ends, motile, forms no spores and is Gram negative, does not liquefy gelatin, produces acidity and coagulation in litmus milk, gives rise to acid and gas in glucose and lactose media, causes canary-yellow fluorescence in neutral red media, and produces indol when grown in peptone water. The term "*Excretal B. coli*" has been suggested as a convenient designation of an organism which possesses the above characteristics.

A saccharose fermenting variety of *B. coli* has been named *B. communior;* and we have a whole series of organisms which differ more or less in various biochemical reactions, or lack some of their positive reactions. To some of these the name "para-colon" has been given; and the name "para typhoid" has been applied to those which more closely approximate to the cultural peculiarities of the typhoid bacillus.

For practical purposes in the analysis of water, these distinctions are unnecessary.

Bact. lactis aerogenes, a short, thick, capsulated, non-motile bacterium related to *B. coli*, is also an intestinal organism, and must be regarded as an indicator of sewage pollution.

B. Typhosus (page 640).—Very few instances are recorded in bacteriological literature of the direct isolation of the typhoid bacillus from infected water. The organism is not long-lived, even in pure water (eight to ten days); and when exposed to the action of sewage bacteria, its longevity is greatly diminished (not more than five to six days). A few resistant specimens may remain alive for longer periods of time.

Although the typhoid bacillus has been found so infrequently in water, it is well understood at the present time that the purification of the water supply of a town or city produces a marked decrease in the number of cases and in the mortality from typhoid fever, as the following table shows: (See also Fig. 57.)

Deaths from Typhoid Fever per 100,000 *per Year.*

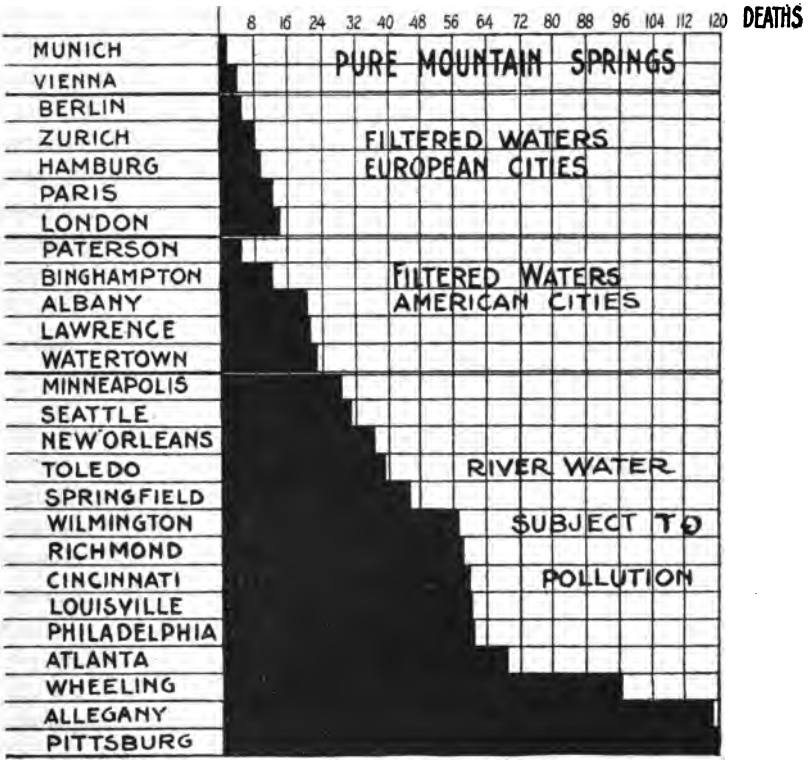
Place	Purification by	Date of change	Five years before change	Five years after change	Percentage of reduction
Hamburg	Filtration	1892–3	47	7	85
Zürich	Filtration	1885	76	10	87
Lawrence, Mass.	Filtration	1893	121	26	79
Albany, N. Y.	Filtration	1899	104	28	73

Not only has such a marked improvement followed the purification of public water supplies in the case of typhoid fever, but it has been shown by statistics that "where one death from typhoid fever has been avoided by the use of better water, a certain number of deaths, probably two or three, from other causes have been avoided."

In the routine examination of water, no particular effort is made to isolate this organism, owing to the difficulty of the task. The tests that the present day investigator has to satisfy are extremely thorough; and unless the suspected organism conforms to the whole of these necessary tests it cannot be accepted as true *B. typhosus*.

Msp. Comma (page 645).—The spirillum, or vibrio, of Asiatic cholera is an intestinal organism; and the disease it produces is spread largely by water. Epidemics of cholera are more easily traced to their source

Average annual death rate from typhoid fever per 100,000 of the population.



An instructive contrast between Altona and Hamburg before the latter filtered its water, having learnt its lesson from a sharp outbreak of cholera.

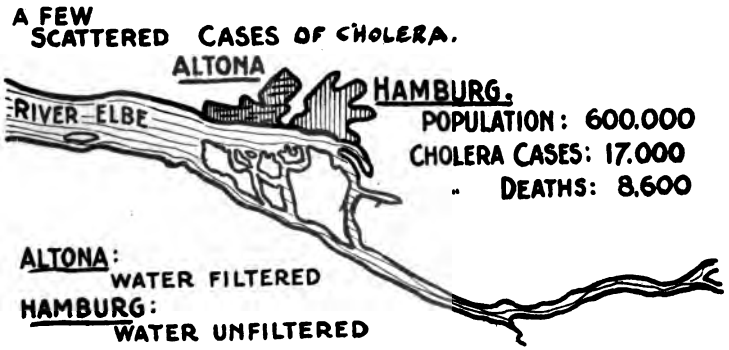


FIG. 57.—(*After G. E. Armstrong.*)

than those of typhoid fever, owing to the "explosive" character of the disease. At the time of the outbreak of cholera in Hamburg, in 1892, the cholera vibrios were frequently isolated from the water of the river Elbe, which was used to furnish the regular supply of the city. The adjoining city of Altona also obtained its water from the same river, after it had received some of the Hamburg sewage; yet it remained practically free from the scourge, owing to the efficiency of sand filters which were used to purify the water (Fig. 57). In times of epidemic, the organism has been isolated from rivers, wells, and reservoirs in India, a country in which the disease is endemic.

The Number of Bacteria in Rain, Snow, Hail, etc., and in Water from Wells, Upland Surface Waters, Rivers, and Lakes.

Rain.—The number of bacteria found in rain depends upon the month of the year and the dryness of the air. When considerable dust is present in the air, the first rain beats it back to the soil; and at such time rain water contains more organisms than usual. Rain falling in densely inhabited cities always contains more microbes than rain falling on open farm land or upland pastures. A few figures will be sufficient to illustrate:

Number of Bacteria per Liter of Rain Water.

Figures for Montsouris Park, Paris, France, and the average for two years.

Month	Number of organisms per liter	Month	Number of organisms per liter
January	8,000	July	5,600
February	1,320	August	8,300
March	2,920	September	5,770
April	2,140	October	3,220
May	2,440	November	3,250
June	5,600	December	4,330

Yearly average 5,300 per liters per month.

The average for the interior of Paris corresponds with the larger amount of dust in the air, and reaches a total of 19,000 organisms per l.

With a yearly rainfall of 609.6 mm. (24 in.), the rain washes down during the year some five million organisms to the square yard.

SNOW.—The results obtained from snow are similar to those obtained from rain; but as a rule the numbers are larger, a result doubtless due to the larger particles of the snow flakes. One investigator has found from 334 to 463 bacteria per c.c. of snow water. On the summit of high mountains snow is practically sterile, Binot not finding a single organism in 8 c.c. of water from mountain-top snow.

Water issuing from glaciers is of remarkable purity, containing only from three to eight organisms per c.c.; but the numbers are larger as the distance from the glacier increases.

HAIL.—Hail stones usually contain large numbers of bacteria, varying from 628 to 21,000 per c.c. of water obtained from the melting hail. Fluorescing bacteria have been found in some samples; and the presence of these microörganisms suggests that surface water is sometimes carried up by storms and congealed. The presence of many molds in hail is due to contamination from the air.

DEEP WELLS.—Deep well water and spring water contain as a rule but few organisms, usually less than 50 per c.c. on gelatin at 20°, and less than 5 per c.c. on agar plates at blood heat. In a series of tests of water taken direct from forty-three artesian wells, 152.4 M. (500 feet) deep or more, the writer has found an average of 27 per c.c. for the gelatin and 1.5 per c.c. for the agar counts. These tests have extended over a period of several years; and water from deep springs has given similar results.

SHALLOW WELLS.—The bacterial content of shallow wells depends greatly on their location and construction. Even in those well located and constructed, the number varies with the amount of rain fall, and is often large. In polluted wells, very high numbers of organisms are found.

Sedgwick and Prescott found from 190 to 8,640 bacteria per c.c. in unpolluted wells.

In the same class of wells, Savage found from 10 to 100 per c.c. by the blood-heat count, and 100 to 20,000 or more by the gelatin count.

Sixty polluted wells examined by the writer gave an average gelatin count of 740 bacteria per c.c.; and thirty-eight wells which were free of contamination gave an average count of 400 per c.c.

Polluted wells often give counts approximating the higher numbers

mentioned above; but, of course, the character of the bacterial flora is quite different.

UPLAND SURFACE WATERS.—There are few bacteria in upland surface waters draining barren uplands. Cultivation, grazing of animals, and human habitation produce other conditions. In pure waters, 50 to 300 per c.c. by the gelatin and 1 to 10 by the agar count are found.

RIVERS.—The greatest variation in the number of bacteria exists in river waters. Many factors, such as sewage contamination, temperature, rain fall, vegetable débris, etc., influence the microbial population. A few figures may be given for illustration.

Bacteriological Examination of Rivers at and below Large Sources of Pollution (Boyce and Co-workers).

Distance	Direction	Munich. River Isar	Cologne, River Rhine
	above	305	4,786
About 0.6 miles.....	below	9,387	.....
About 2.7 miles.....	below	13,503	.....
About 6.0 miles.....	below	8,764	30,432
About 12.0 miles.....	below	4,796	12,460
About 15.0 miles.....	below	3,602	9,595
About 26.0 miles.....	below	.....	7,869

In the Chicago drainage canal, Jordan found 1,245,000 bacteria per c.c. at Bridgeport; 650,000 at Lockport, twenty-nine miles below; and 3,660 at Averyville, 159 miles below. Below where the sewage of Peoria enters, the numbers rise to 758,000 at Wesley City, and decrease to 4,800 at Kampsville, 123 miles from Peoria.

The river Rhône contains an average of 75 bacteria per c.c. above Lyons and 800 below. The Dee, 88 above Braemar and 2,829 per c.c. below. Many more similar results are found in the literature.

LAKES.—The water of lakes is generally much purer than river water. Near the shore, the bacterial content is higher than farther out, showing the contaminating influence of habitation. Thus Lake Geneva contains as many as 150,000 bacteria per c.c. near the shore, and further out only

38 per c.c. Other figures are as follows: Loch Katrine, 74 per c.c., Lake Lucerne, 8 to 51 per c.c., Lake Champlain, 82 per c.c.

SEA WATER.—There are few bacteria in sea water remote from the coast; but near the shore and in the neighborhood of seaports there may be large numbers.

Examples: 350 meters from Naples, sea water contained 26,000 bacteria per c.c. At a distance of 3 kilometers, only 10. Samples taken from depths of 75 to 800 meters at distances from 4 to 15 kilometers from shore were found to contain from 6 to 78 bacteria per c.c. in surface water, and from 3 to 260 at various depths below.

CAUSES AFFECTING THE INCREASE AND DECREASE OF THE NUMBER OF BACTERIA IN WATER.

There are a number of causes which influence the multiplication or diminution of microörganisms in natural waters; and while it is necessary to discuss each of these causes in detail, it must be remembered that a number of them may be simultaneously influencing the increase or decrease.

TEMPERATURE.—In natural waters, a low temperature probably acts injuriously on parasitic bacteria, reducing their numbers; but the bacterial content of water during the hot summer months is generally not so large as during the cooler seasons. Water collected for examination should be analyzed at once; otherwise, contradictory results as to numbers will be found. Usually, in most waters, there is a reduction in numbers for a few hours, followed by a large increase. Very much polluted waters, however, show a marked decrease of intestinal organisms, if the samples are kept cool.

LIGHT (page 162).—Although the germicidal effect of sunlight is well known, yet it has not such powerful effects on the bacteria in water. Much depends, no doubt, on the turbidity and speed of the current, the maximum killing effect being produced in shallow, clear and slow-moving water. It has been found by experiment that the germ-killing power of light extends to a depth of three meters (about 9.84 feet). As a means of purifying water, direct light produces very little effect.

FOOD SUPPLY.—The amount of organic matter in water directly influences the growth of bacteria. Where a large amount of this is present, the number of microörganisms is also large. Rivers containing

considerable organic matter derived from vegetable débris, etc., contain, as a rule, more organisms than rivers in which there is but little of such material. Thus the Ottawa River, which drains a large area of forest lands and is characterized as an upland peaty water carrying a rather high percentage of organic and volatile matter, contains throughout the year a larger number of organisms to the cubic centimeter than the water of the river St. Lawrence, which is much clearer and contains much less organic matter. Sewage water is rich in organic matter, and proportionately rich in bacterial life; and bacterial purification is synchronous with a diminution of organic matter.

Jordan remarks in this connection that "in the causes connected with the insufficiency or unsuitability of the food supply is to be found the main reason for the bacterial self-purification of streams."

Oxidation.—On the surface of waters, in rapids, falls, and tidal rivers, much oxygen is absorbed, and much impure matter is thus oxidized. Such oxidation is one of the minor agencies in the purification of water.

Vegetation and Protozoa.—Low forms of plant and animal life, like certain species of algæ, river plants, and the numerous protozoan forms, bring about a reduction of organic matter in water, and thus reduce the amount of food available for bacteria. There is also the antagonism between these forms and bacteria. The chemical products of the higher forms are considered by some authorities to be injurious to bacterial life; and many bacteria are ingested by predatory protozoa.

Dilution.—Sewage flowing into a river or lake is at once diluted with quantities of pure water, and the amount of available food material is thus diminished; the space occupied by a definite number of bacteria is increased; and it is easy to see that the greater the dilution, the fewer sewage bacteria will be found. An example will suffice to illustrate. The sewage of the city of Ottawa amounts to about 454 l. (100 gallons) per second; and the gelatin count from it gives an average in round numbers of 3,000,000 bacteria per c.c. The yearly mean discharge of the river is about 1,364,511 l. (300,000 gallons) a second; and thus the sewage becomes diluted 3,000 times.

Sedimentation.—Impurities, suspended matter, and bacteria having weight, naturally gravitate to the bottom; and the subsidence of these matters is spoken of as sedimentation.

Lake water being still, sedimentation in it is more marked than in moving water; and such water contains but few bacteria. In slow-

moving rivers the influence of this factor is also quite pronounced; and, according to Jordan, "The influences summed up by the term *sedimentation* are sufficiently powerful to obviate the necessity for summoning another cause to explain the diminution in numbers of bacteria" in sewage polluted rivers. The example already given (page 200) of the self-purification of the Chicago drainage canal illustrates Jordan's contention.

OTHER CAUSES.—There is a number of other causes, not well known nor of sufficient practical importance for more detailed comment, which may increase or decrease the number of bacteria in water, such as the inhibiting action of microörganisms and their products on one another, the effects of pressure, etc.

A peculiar fact, which has never been satisfactorily explained, is the quick death (in three to five hours) of the cholera vibrio in the waters of the Ganges and Jumna. When one remembers that these rivers are grossly contaminated by sewage, by numerous corpses of natives (often dead of cholera), and by the bathing of thousands of natives, it seems remarkable that the belief of the Hindoos, the water of these rivers is pure and cannot be defiled, and they can safely drink it and bathe in it, should be confirmed by means of modern bacteriological research. It is also a curious fact that the bactericidal power of Jumna water is lost when it is boiled; and that the cholera vibrio propagates at once, if placed in water taken from wells in the vicinity of these rivers.

INTERPRETATION OF THE BACTERIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF WATER.

In making any analysis of water, all data, such as the kind of water and the particulars regarding collection, transmission, sampling, rainfall, etc., should be given, as these are a great help in interpreting the results. One analysis is rarely sufficient; examinations should be regularly and systematically made.

QUANTITATIVE STANDARDS.—No absolute guide can be given to determine the potable quality of water from the number of microörganisms in it. It may, however, be safely assumed that high bacterial counts indicate a large amount of organic matter. The number of organisms growing in beef peptone gelatin at 20–22°, and termed the "gelatin count," should be given. For deep wells and springs, this should not exceed 50 per c.c.; and for shallow wells and rivers, not over 500 per c.c. After rains or floods, these figures might be exceeded, and would not necessarily indicate dangerous pollution.

The number of organisms which develop on beef peptone agar incubated at blood heat, commonly termed the "agar" or "blood-heat" count, is perhaps more important than the gelatin count, as many water bacteria do not grow at blood heat, whereas sewage and soil organisms grow readily at this temperature. The agar count eliminates the *water flora*, but obscures the sanitary results by reason of the presence of soil bacteria. For deep waters, the agar count should generally not exceed 10 per c.c.; and for surface waters, not over 100 per c.c.

QUALITATIVE STANDARDS.—The isolation and identification of specific disease organisms, such as typhoid and cholera microbes from water, is sufficient to condemn such a sample as unfit for use; but on account of many technical difficulties it is practically impossible to make such an examination. Apart from a few special cases, when it may be necessary to attempt the isolation of these pathogenic bacteria, the presence of the colon bacillus (*B. coli*) in small amounts of water, is generally looked upon as significant and indicative of sewage pollution. The technical methods used in this isolation and numeration are many, and may be found in the works cited; but there is considerable difference of opinion as to the *number* of *B. coli* which should condemn a sample of water. Prescott and Winslow state that if the colon bacillus is in "such abundance as to be isolated in a large proportion of cases from 1 c.c. of water, it is reasonable proof of the presence of serious pollution." Savage suggests that *B. coli* should be absent from 100 c.c. in the case of water from deep wells and springs, and should be absent from 10 c.c. in surface waters, such as rivers used for drinking purposes, shallow wells, and upland surface waters.

The streptococcus examination is next in importance as an indicator of sewage. Streptococci should be absent from the amounts of water mentioned above for *B. coli;* and *B. enteritidis sporogenes* should not be present in 1,000 c.c. of water from deep wells, nor in 100 c.c. from surface waters.

SEDIMENTATION, FILTRATION, AND PURIFICATION OF WATER.

As areas become more and more thickly settled and towns and cities increase in population, the problem of obtaining sanitary control over the water supply increases in importance. Very few towns and cities are fortunate enough to obtain their water supply from an unpolluted

area. Consequently expensive installation must be made, in order to purify a suspiciously contaminated water by freeing it from organisms injurious to health. There are several methods of accomplishing such purification; and these will be briefly mentioned.

SEDIMENTATION AND FILTRATION.—This method of purifying water has been used for nearly a hundred years; but the great impetus given to this hygienic measure was due to Koch, who showed in 1893 that the

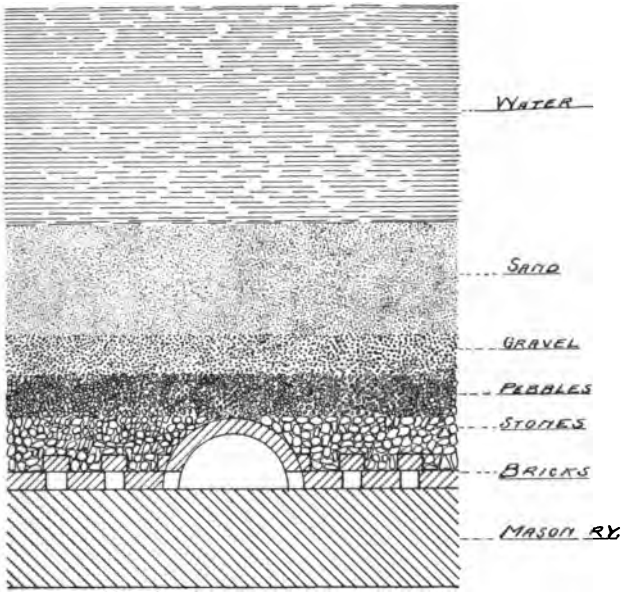


FIG. 58.—Section of a sand filter.

proper filtration of Elbe water saved the town of Altona from an epidemic of cholera which devastated Hamburg as a result of drinking unfiltered water. In this system of purification, the water is first stored in large reservoirs, where the effect of sedimentation and storage reduces considerably the number of bacteria. From the reservoir, the water is filtered through sand, gravel, and pebbles, etc., arranged as shown in Fig. 58. This filtration removes from 97 to 99.5 per cent of the microörganisms.

Mean of Monthly Examinations for the Year.

	Microörganisms per c.c.		
	At source	After storage	After filtration
London, Lambeth Works	16,138	7,820	75
London, Chelsea Work	16,138	1,067	34
Berlin, Lake Müggel	1,400	.....	60
Paris, Marne	79,000	.....	630
Paris, Seine	186,986	.....	400

The action of the filter bed is due to the mechanical obstruction of impurities, to oxidation of the organic matter, and to nitrification due to the living bacteria in the scum which forms on the top of the layer of sand. Of these, the last is the most important; for until this gelatinous layer forms, the filter does not act properly—in fact, it has little filtering action, as the following figures show:

Bacterial Content of Water Before and After Cleaning the Sand Filter.

Before cleaning, *i.e.*, before removing the scum layer	42 per c.c.
One day after cleaning	1880
Two days after cleaning	752
Three days after cleaning	208
Four days after cleaning	156
Five days after cleaning	102
Six days after cleaning	84

Thus provision must be made to permit the scum or film to form before the filtered water is used for domestic purposes.

The rate of filtration must be regulated; for if the water is allowed to exceed a certain rate (101.6 mm. or 4 inches per hour), inefficiency follows.

Coagulating Basins and Filtration.—This method of purification consists in adding a coagulant, such as basic sulphate of aluminum, by means of a mechanical device which regulates the quantity, as the water is pumped into the coagulating basins or reservoirs, where it remains for six to twenty-four hours. The aluminium sulphate is decomposed by the lime in the water and forms insoluble aluminium hydrate; and the sulphuric acid combines with the lime. The hydrate of aluminium is pre-

cipitated in large flocculent masses, entangling all particles of soil or organic matter; and these, being deposited on the surface of the sand, form the filtering layer. Such filters are very efficient; they remove from 97 to 99.8 per cent of the bacteria from the water.

POROUS FILTERS.—(Fig. 59.) These filters are either made from unglazed porcelain or baked diatomaceous earth; the former are known as Chamberland, and the latter as Berkefeld filters. These filters are usually candle-shaped, require considerable pressure to force water

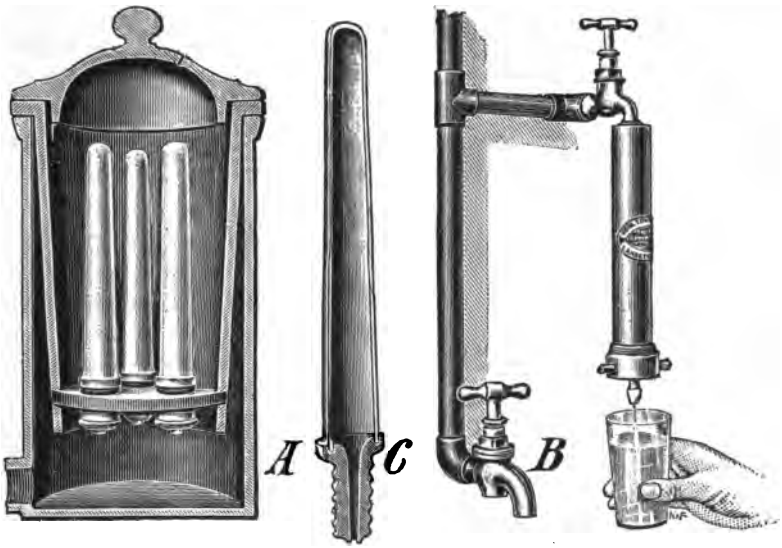


FIG. 59.—Unglazed porcelain filters. Chamberland system; *A*, without pressure; *B*, fitted to main water supply; *C*, section of a porous porcelain filter.

through them, and can be used only when a small supply of water is needed. Water which is forced through these filters is at first sterile; but with repeated use they allow bacteria to pass through the pores and thus the filtering efficiency is impaired and will remain so, until the filters are cleaned and baked to red heat in a muffle-furnace. Unless this is done regularly, no dependence should be placed on these filters, as they only put those who use them off their guard against the danger to which they are exposed.

PURIFICATION BY OZONE.—The antiseptic properties of ozone are

well known. It is used in the purification of the water supply of some towns—Nice, Chartres, etc. Ozone used for this purpose is usually obtained by means of the electric current; and a flowing film of water is brought into contact with an upward current of air charged with ozone, which current makes the water almost completely sterile. This method of purification is efficient, but rather expensive.

PURIFICATION BY HEAT.—By bringing water to the boiling point, all harmful bacteria are destroyed; a few spores may resist this treatment, but they are harmless. Boiled water is of a flat, insipid taste, due to the driving out of the contained gases. The taste may be improved by cooling and shaking. The boiling of water is often resorted to as a hygienic measure in times of epidemic, and for the supply of armies in the field.

PURIFICATION BY CHEMICALS.—The addition of a small amount of calcium hypochlorite, or potassium iodide, etc., purifies water; but these methods are seldom used, except for the use of soldiers on campaign.

LOCATION AND CONSTRUCTION OF WELLS.

Farms in many sections of this country are practically all supplied with surface water collected in shallow wells. Hence farmers should understand the principles involved in the location and construction of wells.

Many farm wells are badly located—too near such sources of contamination as out-houses, cess-pools, stables, or barn-yards; and those who locate them give too little attention to the slope of the ground, and the nature and slope of the subsoil. There should be at least 22 to 30 M. (75 to 100 feet) between the well and all probable sources of contamination; and this distance is too small, if the soil is very porous, or if the surface and subsoil drainage is toward the well, or if the well is sunk in fissured rock—as it is obvious that there are serious chances of contamination in each of the above circumstances.

In all cases, the surface drainage should be away from the well; and, as far as possible, the subsoil drainage also should be *from* the well.

Sketches 60, 61, and 62 illustrate these points, the upper part of each drawing showing the plan and the lower portion a section through the dotted line marked on the plan. Figure 60, shows that the surface drainage is from the house, privy, stables, and barnyard toward the well. The section through the line "A" shows the relation of the impervious subsoil "B" to

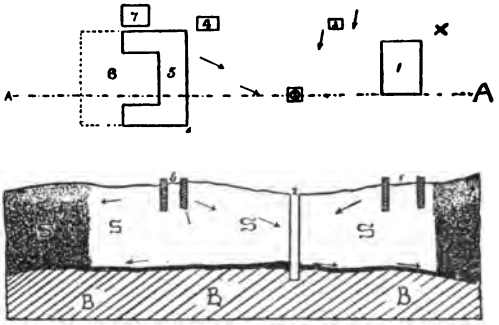


FIG. 60.

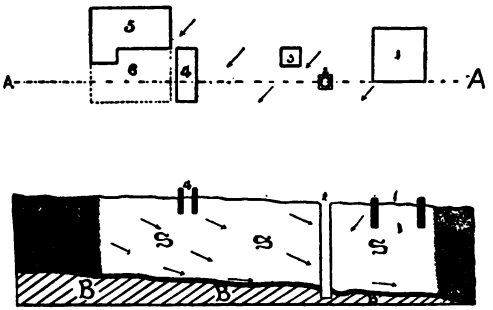


FIG. 61.

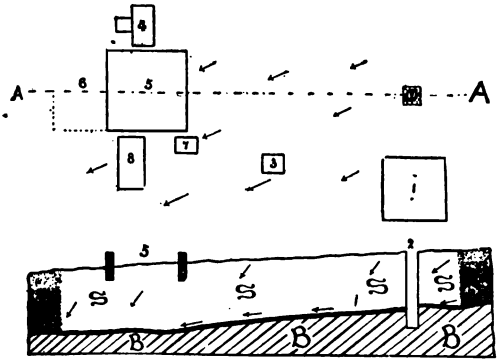


FIG. 62.

FIGS. 60, 61 and 62.—In each figure—plan above—section through A B below. S = Soil; B = impervious subsoil or strata. 1, House; 2, well; 3, outhouse; 4, piggery; 5, stables; 6, stable yard; 7, hen house; 8, sheep stable. Arrow heads indicate direction of water flow. (Original.)

the drainage. Water falling on the surface of the ground would penetrate through the soil to the upper portion of the subsoil, and then move along it in the direction of the greatest slope. In this sketch, the subsoil drainage is away from the well; and in this respect the well is located properly; but, in respect to the surface drainage, improperly located. A better place for the well would be at the letter "X."

In Fig. 61 the surface drainage—including that from the adjacent outhouse at 3, which is too close to the well—is toward the barn, and away from the well; but the subsoil drainage from all the buildings,

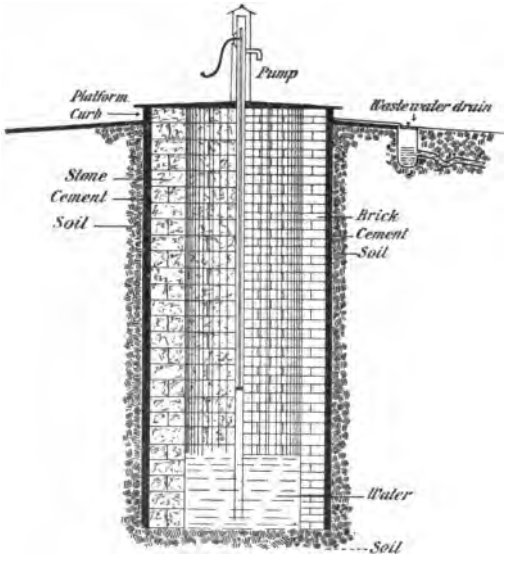


FIG. 63.—Construction of a model well. On the right is brick construction, on the left stone construction, as illustrated. (Original.)

except the house, is in the direction of the well; and thus contamination of the water supply is liable to occur.

Fig. 62 shows a well properly located as regards both surface and subsoil drainage. Such a well will supply pure water, if it is properly constructed.

Figure 63 shows the proper construction of a well with brick or stone. Large vitrified drain pipes with cemented joints will answer equally well when there is an abundant supply of water; but in case the supply of water is limited, a large area is needed, and a stone or brick well is necessary.

Reference to the illustrations will show that every endeavor is made to prevent surface water from entering directly into the well. The walls are impervious; and the earth or clay is well rammed against the outer side of the wall. The curb is carried well above the surface of the ground. The waste water is conducted by means of a sloping platform, trap, and drain, away from the well; and the well opening is properly covered. All water entering such a well must percolate through a considerable depth of soil, and undergo purification by means of the aggregations of living bacteria in the soil spaces. Thus the soil around a well fulfils the same function in purifying the surface water as the scum layer that forms on the surface of gravel filters.

CHAPTER II.*

MICROBIOLOGY OF SEWAGE.

The Bacterial Flora of Sewage.

Complexity of Flora.—Sewage is made up of the miscellaneous and varied wastes of human life and activity, and the bacteria which are found therein are the result of a haphazard and chance admixture of substances of diverse origin and character. The resulting flora is not only of great diversity and variability, but it is with few exceptions non-characteristic. In brief, the medium with which we have to deal has had an origin too indefinite and a history too short to have permitted the establishment of anything approaching a constant or characteristic bacterial flora.

Typical Forms.—Our interest in this sewage flora is a very practical one, being confined to those organisms which carry on the work of biological purification and to certain pathogens which for obvious reasons require special treatment. We are interested chiefly in what these bacteria do rather than in what they are, and our classification is influenced accordingly. It is based, not upon the species or the genus nor even upon the group or type, that proves so convenient in general bacterial classification, but upon a sort of physiological or functional type, having to do solely with the activities of the organisms in sewage and in its purification. Bacteria performing a common function or producing a common result are members of one type. Individuals may belong to several of our types and there are doubtless a great many that belong to none. These latter simply have no place assigned them as yet in the rôle of sewage purification, because they possess none of the recognized typical functions.

Apparent exception may be taken to these general principles in the case of such organisms as the *B. coli*, sewage streptococci and *B. enteritidis*. These are, to a certain extent, characteristic sewage bacteria. But interest in them as individuals is confined to water bacteriology. If they have any functions in the bacterial changes of sewage, they receive attention as members of a corresponding type, not

* Prepared by Earle B. Phelps.

as individuals. A study of these sewage types, therefore, is a study of the chemical changes induced in the medium by the activities of one or the other group of bacteria.

Types of Sewage Bacteria.

According to the general character of the changes which they bring about, sewage bacteria are divided into two large groups, the anaerobic or putrefactive bacteria, and the oxidizing bacteria. In regard to the former, no attention is paid to the fine distinctions that have been made in recent years in connection with the definition of putrefaction. In sewage chemistry putrefaction is that change which takes place naturally in sewage after anaerobic conditions have become established. It involves the reduction of urea, the hydrolysis of protein and of cellulose, the emulsification of fats, the reduction of nitrates and sulphates and possibly of phosphates, and those other changes which are characterized by the withdrawal of oxygen and the hydrolysis of complex molecules. These changes are always noted in sewage under anaerobic conditions and the terms putrefactive and anaerobic change are for the present purposes practically synonymous.

The oxidizing reactions on the other hand might be classed under the general heading of aerobic reactions, except that they constitute only a small portion of the group of reactions which take place normally under aerobic conditions. They are distinguished by the fact that oxygen is added to the molecule, the product always containing more oxygen than the initial substance. Carbon dioxide, water and nitrates are produced, in distinction from methane, hydrogen and ammonia, which characterize the anaerobic reactions. A third type, possessing objective rather than subjective functions, in sewage, is made up of pathogenic and other harmful bacteria. These play no part in our theories of purification and the proof of their presence is generally lacking. For the protection of the public health, it is assumed that they are always present in sewage, and our procedure in sewage disposal is modified throughout in accordance with this assumption.

With these definitions in mind we may proceed to a more detailed study of the bacterial types themselves.

Putrefactive and Anaerobic Bacteria.—Putrefaction or anaerobic fermentation involves the withdrawal of oxygen from one molecule or part of a molecule and the subsequent oxidation of another molecule or

part of the same molecule. The energy released in this process is utilized in the vital functions of the organism. This action is neither oxidation nor reduction, or more strictly, it is both taking place simultaneously.

A good example of such a process is the fermentation of urea. The reaction takes place as follows:

$$CO(NH_2)_2 + 2H_2O = (NH_4)_2CO_3.$$

Carbon is oxidized at the expense of hydrogen, a process which, by itself, is endothermic, that is, requires heat or energy for its maintenance. But the heat of formation of the final product is greater than that of the initial substances and the energy thus liberated becomes available for use by the bacteria. It is in this way that hydrolytic changes of this character play the same rôle in anaerobic reactions that is played by direct oxidation under aerobic conditions.

The Liquefaction of Protein.—One of the most clearly defined and useful types of bacterial activity to be seen in the various sewage disposal processes is that which we term liquefaction. This term is used to denote broadly all those changes by which solid and insoluble organic matter is converted into a soluble condition. The particular process known as protein liquefaction is in the main analogous to gastric digestion. Its one characteristic is the increased solubility of the product. The practical importance of protein liquefaction in sewage disposal is very great and the value of the liquefying bacteria correspondingly high. Nevertheless, aside from our knowledge of analogous processes in digestion and in bacterial putrefaction of albuminous substances, we know almost nothing of the chemistry or the bacteriology of this process. An enormous variety of bacteria are included in this group. The whole process is doubtless the result of a very complicated symbiosis in which various subgroups of bacteria carry out the initial reaction, from which point other groups carry it through successive stages. Absence of one or another of these groups or of some important species of any group doubtless accounts for the diverse results that are recorded. It is well known that the activities within a septic tank, for example, are seldom twice the same. Gross differences readily apparent to the senses of one versed in such matters certainly exist, and in actual results it is rare to find two tanks doing exactly the same kind of work. Much depends of course upon the chemical character of the sewage itself, but much, that is still unexplained, must eventually be traced to the great diversity of the sewage flora and the com-

plex symbioses as well as bacterial antagonisms that are involved in the reactions with which we are dealing.

During these reactions proteins and albumins are hydrolyzed by successive stages to albumoses, peptones, amino-acids, amines, and finally to ammonia, carbon dioxide, methane, hydrogen, etc. Simultaneously ammonia, amines, and carbon dioxide are eliminated at each stage as side products. The tendency then is toward simple, soluble and gaseous products, and hence of value in the preliminary resolution of the sewage.

The Fermentation of Cellulose.—The fermentation of cellulose is, next to protein hydrolysis, the most important work of the anaerobic bacteria in sewage treatment. So far as is definitely known this action is usually confined to anaerobic conditions. The fact that fence posts decay first at the surface of the ground, or that wood in general decays more rapidly when it is exposed to only a slight degree of moisture, than when it is immersed in water is only an apparent contradiction. The conditions are aerobic in both cases and aerobic bacteria would not be favored by total immersion but the effect in both instances seems to be due to fungus growths which are more active in the moist wood.

The anaerobic fermentation of cellulose is that which is found typically in marshes and of which the chief products are carbon dioxide and methane or "marsh gas." Nitrogenous food material is also requisite, which accounts for the preserving property of reasonably pure water upon wood.

In the septic tank the solution of cellulose is extremely rapid, and large pieces of cotton cloth or rolls of paper are completely dissolved within a few months. Wood itself is more resistant and withstands the action of the tank for years. This is largely due to the fact that the wood molecule is much more complicated than a simple cellulose molecule, and, among the conifera at least, to the further fact that antiseptic intercellular substances are present.

Chemically considered the action is hydrolytic and can be imitated by prolonged boiling in dilute acids. Pectin substances, starches and finally sugars are produced while butyric and other organic acids, carbon dioxide and methane appear as by-products. Bacteriologically, although it has variously been ascribed to one or another organism, it is probably the result of the activities of many and is possibly not the principal activity of any one of these. In other words, cellulose fermentation is probably a

series of side reactions produced during the fermentation of the nitrogenous material rather than a definite reaction upon which the metabolism of any single species depends. This view is strengthened by the general observations that this fermentation is in most cases due directly to enzymes. Viewed in this light it is easy to understand the difficulty that has surrounded the isolation of definite cellulose fermenting organisms. Many have been described, chief of which are *B. butyricus* or *B. amylobacter*, *B. omelianski*, *Sp. rugula*, and others.

The Saponification of Fats.—A third great group of type reactions occurring under anaerobic conditions is the saponification or splitting of fat. Our knowledge of this process is even less definite than of the cellulose fermentations. It is a fact that there does take place in sewage a gradual saponification and emulsification by which the fat loses its identity and mingles with the liquid. This effect is most noticeable in the case of long sewers in which considerable velocities are maintained. In quiescent tanks there is a tendency for the fats to rise to the surface and thus become removed from the influence of this action. Thus in small installations enormously heavy scums form upon the tanks and analysis shows a considerable percentage of fat in this material. In larger systems on the other hand there is less and less evidence of fatty material as such. It is true that there is a deposit upon the walls and tops of such sewers and that small floating objects, like matches, rolling along such a wall will accumulate layers of grease and become eventually the familiar "grease-balls" found in the discharge, but in the main the fatty material has become well disintegrated before the outlet is reached.

In this case also as in that previously discussed it is not believed that the action is a direct result of the activity of any particular organism. The proteolytic changes are accompanied by the freeing of alkaline products, ammonia and amines, which leads to some saponification, and which, in turn, leads to a further emulsification. Whether specific enzymes are present which assist in this final process or not has never been determined. It is significant to note, however, that where sewages are slightly acid, unaltered fats are much more abundant, even though the acidity is insufficient to prevent vigorous putrefactive changes in the sewage itself.

The Fermentation of Urea.—The fermentation of urea has already been referred to as a typical and simple case of anaerobic decomposition. This reaction has great significance in sewage chemistry since a consider-

able proportion of the nitrogen of sewage is present initially as urea. Owing to the ease and rapidity with which the reaction takes place, however, no special effort is necessary to bring it about in sewage treatment and it therefore receives brief attention in discussions of the chemistry of sewage. The change to ammonia takes place in the small sewers of the system and it is difficult and generally impossible to detect the presence of urea in sewage. It has even been suggested that certain enzymes present in fecal matter are instrumental in bringing about this change and that the bacteria are only indirectly concerned. It is known, however, that a large number of bacteria of general occurrence have the power to produce this fermentation. Of these the *Bact. ureæ* (Miquel) may be cited as an example.

The Reduction of Sulphates and Nitrates.—The production of sulphuretted hydrogen during the anaerobic decomposition of sewage is commonly noted. This substance may arise in at least two ways. Sulphur, being a constituent of most protein substances, is split off from the molecule in this form during certain types of fermen tation. Its formation in these cases is analogous to that of ammonia from protein. The amount so produced is small and is usually neutralized and precipitated by the small amounts of iron and other metals always present in sewage. There is therefore no liberation of the gas itself and it is often said that sulphuretted hydrogen is not formed normally in a septic tank. This conclusion is readily disproved by a simple test of the black residue found at the bottom of such tanks.

A second and more important source of this substance is the sulphate normally present in many sewages. Throughout many parts of the country the water supply contains material quantities of magnesium or calcium sulphate, and upon the sea coast the sewage generally receives more or less salt water.

In these cases the reduction of sulphates to sulphuretted hydrogen is not only of interest bacteriologically but probably exerts an influence upon all the reactions that are going on simultaneously. In fact this example serves excellently to illustrate the great complexity of these anaerobic reactions and the mutual interdependence of each upon all the others. Sulphates, under anaerobic conditions, are a source of oxygen and it is upon oxygen that the course of all these reactions depends. Therefore the presence of sulphates and the possibility of their yielding oxygen may

alter the course of the other reactions involved. The products of the protein hydrolysis for example may be profoundly modified by the presence of this additional source of oxygen.

The effect upon the bacteria themselves is also to be considered as a factor quite distinct form the purely chemical effect just described. It has frequently been observed, and in fact would be expected, that the products of anaerobic putrefaction are themselves detrimental to the activity of the organism producing the changes in question. The nature of sulphuretted hydrogen makes it appear quite probable that we are dealing here with a toxic substance that would at least inhibit the activities of certain bacteria and in this way further modify the final result.

The same might be said of almost all the reactions with which we have to deal but this example is cited as a typical one.

It is known in practice that the presence of sulphates in a sewage does lead to a distinct type of anaerobic change which is characterized by the marked blackening of the sewage, the formation of secondary reaction products which precipitate after the removal of the suspended matter of the sewage, the evolution of hydrogen sulphide, an excessive amount of mineral or non-volatile residue in the sludge and the formation of free sulphur upon subsequent aeration of the sewage.

Here again, as in the other types of reaction, it is useless for the present to attempt to ascribe this reaction to any particular species. *Sp. desulphuricans* and *B. sulphureus* have been isolated. A non-liquefying anaerobic bacillus, which reduced sulphates strongly, was isolated from Boston sewage in the writer's laboratory by G. R. Spaulding. Others have been described and there is undoubtedly a large group of organisms capable of bringing about the reaction.

Just as the reduction of nitrates is a function performed by many, perhaps most, anaerobes, so the reduction of sulphates, although a less common function, is still common to many forms. In fact nitrates, sulphates, and phosphates form a series in regard to their reducibility and the effect of their presence upon the reaction as a whole. The phosphates so far as has been recorded are not ordinarily reduced.

OXIDIZING BACTERIA. *The Production of Nitrate and Nitrite.*—A long series of investigations upon the organisms which oxidize nitrogen began with the Franklands and Winogradski, and has continued to the present day. These have given us much information concerning the

habits and functions of the nitrifying organisms. Winogradski's original types were *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrobacter*, the former oxidizing ammonia to nitrite, the latter completing the oxidation to nitrate. Work upon these organisms constitutes such an important factor in soil bacteriology to-day that more detailed discussion of this nitrifying function is left for another place.

In the earlier days of sewage purification great stress was laid upon the work of these organisms, which was believed to be fundamental. The degree of nitrification was accepted as a measure of the work of the filters and little thought was given to the possibility of oxidizing reactions by other forms. With the development of modern sewage disposal methods, the work of this latter type of bacteria has assumed a more important rôle and the actual work of the nitrifying organism has been found to be of only minor and incidental importance.

Other Oxidizing Reactions.—The great groups of aerobic and facultative bacteria are in general concerned in the oxidation of organic matter. There is nothing specific in this reaction and very little that is characteristic of any special or smaller groups. Under certain special and restricted conditions, typical products are formed by particular species, as in the manufacture of vinegar, and it is possible that a careful study of the complex reactions involved in the oxidation of sewage would show a certain sequence in the order of events and certain definite work being accomplished by definite groups. In other words, symbiosis and specialization doubtless take place to a limited extent. But the fundamental fact remains that the metabolism of the organism demands that organic matter be oxidized for the production of energy. Even though certain food substances may be preferred and certain decompositions be normally produced there is necessarily a great latitude and great adaptability.

For this very reason a study of the individual organism and its action upon specific materials throws no light upon the major problem, which is, given fifty different types of organisms and fifty different fermentable substances, in a mixture, what will be the course of the reaction. Here the preferences, the adaptability and the antagonisms all come into play and while it is impossible to say what has happened or how, it is readily conceived and, in fact, almost apparent, that out of this heterogeneous mixture there will come a homogeneous symbiotic family and an orderly sequence of chemical events, in which metabolic needs and food supply are all delicately adjusted.

PATHOGENIC BACTERIA.—*Prevalence and Longevity.*—Owing to its origin and nature, sewage may at any time contain infectious material and for the purposes of the sanitarian it is assumed that at all times the germs of disease are present. Such an assumption is possibly in excess of the actual facts and is only justified because it supplies the only possible hypothesis having an adequate margin of safety. The actual prevalence of pathogenic bacteria obviously depends in the first instance upon the amount of sickness in the contributing community. Furthermore, if, as we are coming to believe, a definite proportion of the population are perpetual carriers of typhoid infection then to just as definite an extent is the bacterial population of the sewage made up of typhoid bacteria from apparently well persons. In addition to these, about five one-hundredths of 1 per cent of the population of American cities are suffering from the disease in acute form. Making due allowance for the extra precautions that are, or should be taken in the care of the dejecta, these persons constitute a definite and fairly constant source of infection.

In the case of the other infectious diseases of the alimentary tract, and, possibly to a less extent in the case of tuberculosis, diphtheria, and many others, these general statements are equally applicable, so that the possibility of the occurrence of infectious material in sewage is not a remote one, but definite and almost quantitatively determinable.

As to the persistence of active pathogenic bacteria in the sewage for any length of time the data are less exact. In the case of typhoid fever, which has been more carefully studied than any other disease, the germs are more persistent in pure water than in impure, but whether this generality can be extended to sewage is debatable. Our best information leads to the belief that any reduction in numbers of typhoid bacteria which may take place within the sewer before discharge is of minor importance and of slight sanitary significance.

Discussion of other pathogens must be in even more general terms. Information is almost wholly lacking and it can only be assumed for purposes of safety that, in so far as organisms of these various types are discharged into the sewer, they will persist to a certain extent in the sewage until it is finally disposed of. If such disposal be by discharge into a stream without purification, then the waters of that stream become polluted with infectious material. Studies recently made by Sedgwick and McNutt have indicated the possibility that many diseases, other than the oft-quoted typhoid fever, may be transmitted in this way.

Life in Septic Tanks and Filters.—With the introduction of the septic tank at Exeter, England, in 1893, the question of the fate of pathogenic bacteria in such a tank was raised. It was even suggested that bacteria, such as the typhoid organism, might multiply in the tank. The question was investigated by Professor Sims Woodhead, who concluded that no organisms capable of setting up morbid changes in animals were discharged from the tank. This negative evidence however has little weight in the light of more recent experiments. Pickard introduced an emulsion of typhoid bacteria into this same tank and noted only a gradual decrease. After fourteen days he was able to detect 1 per cent of the initial number. He also reported a removal of 90 per cent of the typhoid organisms introduced into a contact filter. These data must be interpreted in the light of two established facts. The typhoid organism tends to die at a rapid but diminishing rate under any but the most favorable conditions. This results in a rapid decrease at first, with a prolonged survival of a few individuals. This process takes place in sewers, in streams, and, in fact, under most artificial conditions. The second fact of importance is the difficulty of recovering the typhoid organism under experimental conditions like those described.

A thorough study of the bacteriology of sewage and of filter effluents led Houston to conclude that the biological processes at work in a filter or tank were not strongly inimical, if hostile at all, to the vitality of pathogenic germs.

A conservative study of all the evidence bearing upon this important question including the vitality and fate of certain non-pathogenic species, such as *B. coli*, leads to the conclusion that the removal of pathogenic bacteria in purification methods is due to two allied causes, the efficiency of which can be approximately determined. There is first the time element and the known rapid decrease in the numbers of certain bacteria such as *B. typhosus* when placed under conditions that preclude multiplication. The rate of decrease varies but is roughly about 50 per cent in twenty-four hours.

The second factor, acting in reality in conjunction with the first, is the mechanical hindrance that is offered to the free passage of suspended materials through the body of a filter. Even fine sand offers little straining action as such, since the open channels are thousands of times as big as the bacterial cell, but surface tension phenomena tend to make all solid material adhere to the medium and thus its passage is delayed.

This action is prominent although of less importance in coarse-grained filters. Actual experiments by the writer have indicated that while the liquid may pass through a trickling filter in half an hour, small suspended particles such as ultramarine and *B. prodigiosus* cells require an average of over twenty-four hours. In this way the actual time of passage is greatly delayed even when coarse broken stone is the filter medium, and the times that are now known to be necessary for the passage are ample in themselves to account for the reductions that have been noted.

It may therefore be stated as a conservative view of the efficiency of purification processes in the removal of pathogenic bacteria, that there are no strongly inimical processes at work in the tanks or filters, and that the rate of decrease is not materially greater than would be observed in the same period of time under the conditions of a running stream.

The Cultivation of Sewage Bacteria.

There are two general methods employed for the cultivation of those bacteria which are of assistance in sewage purification. They may be cultivated in so-called filters of sand or coarser material, or in specially constructed tanks such as the septic or the hydrolytic tank. In the former case the bacterial growth occurs upon the special medium provided, the sand or stone; in the latter, it takes place in the liquid itself and a continuous life history within such a tank is possible only when the rate of flow is sufficiently slow to permit of the inoculation of the incoming stream by the contents of the tank.

Filters.—The filtering media most commonly employed are sand or crushed stone or other coarse material. In natural sand beds a brief period of treatment with sewage suffices to produce an active state of "nitrification." By this term is indicated all the complex processes of oxidation one index of which is the formation of nitrates. After such a filter has once become active in this way it will continue, with proper care, to oxidize sewage almost indefinitely. Improper care, such as an overdose of sewage or continued flooding of the surface due to poor drainage, will soon destroy the activity of the filter. The addition of germicidal substances has a similar effect and cold weather somewhat reduces the efficiency. From all this it is apparent that a filter is a biological culture medium upon which the various types of bacteria are growing and carrying out their functions and that such a medium requires careful control and is sensitive to unfavorable changes in environment (Fig. 64).

The other filters are similar to this and illustrate the true function of filtration. In the case of the sand filter it might be maintained that filtration or straining was an essential element in the process, but in the case of these coarse-grained media straining action is eliminated. Here there is nothing but a pile of stones, varying from one to three inches or more in diameter, upon the surface of which the bacteria grow. The

FIG. 64.—Sewage Experiment Station, Mass. Inst. Technology. Trickling filter in front, sand filter just behind trickling filter, dosing tank just behind sand filter, and septic tank just behind dosing tank.

sewage trickles slowly over the surfaces, or is held in contact with them temporarily, according as we are dealing with trickling or contact filters. Solids adhere to the stones or settle upon them, and soluble material is "absorbed" by the surface growth and removed from solution. Within these gelatinous growths to which the air also has free access, the processes of oxidation take place and the products, the semi-oxidized organic

material, are later "shed" from the stones appearing again in the effluent as humus or stable organic matter.

ANAEROBIC TANKS.—The cultivation of bacteria in anaerobic tanks is not quite as simple a matter as that which has just been described. The sewage is allowed to flow slowly through the tank and after some time, from a few days to a month or more, a normal and constant flora will have become resident there. This flora will soon have become so well established that the incoming sewage laden with a flora of its own mingles with a liquid in which the established flora is so greatly in excess that the

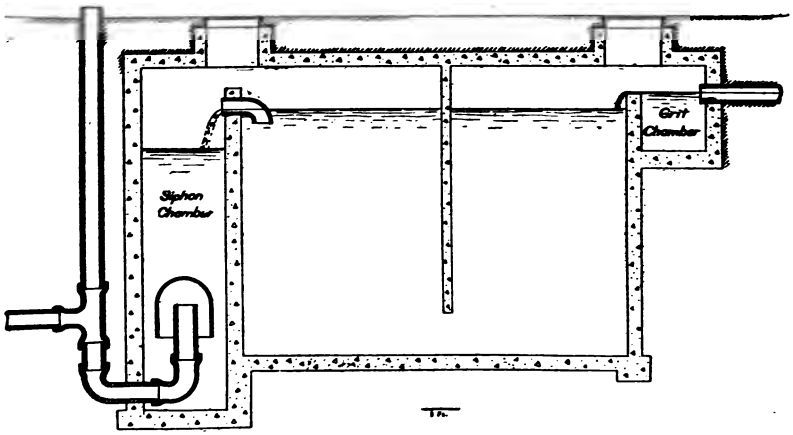


FIG. 65.—Sketch of septic tank. (Original.)

former in large measure gives way to the latter. In this way, while the sewage itself moves onward and is gone within a few hours, the flora is constant and persistent. A further aid in preserving this constant flora is the sludge at the bottom, in which the bacteria lodge and multiply and from which they are carried upward by the ever moving eddies and constantly re-inoculate the liquid above (Fig. 65).

THE DESTRUCTION OF SEWAGE BACTERIA.

BY BIOLOGICAL PROCESSES.—Reference has already been made to the effect of biological processes of purification upon pathogenic bacteria. What was stated in regard to the pathogens is equally true of the sewage

bacteria as a whole. Their destruction is due to time and an environment unfavorable to growth, rather than to any specific cause. Further evidence of these facts may now be given. Bacteria as a whole do pass even the fine-grained filters in large numbers. Careful analyses of their types show them to be a haphazard mixture from the original sewage flora with little or no observable selection. Houston pointed out the relative abundance of the streptococci, supposedly delicate organisms, and found on the whole that the relative abundance of the different kinds of bacteria seemed to be much the same in the effluent as in the crude sewage.

On the whole we may conclude that the biological processes remove bacteria not by any specific antagonistic action but by delaying their passage and permitting the natural decrease that occurs when multiplication is prevented. The more efficient the mechanism of the filter in producing this delay the more complete will be the removal.

By Chemical Processes.—A much more reliable and economical method for bacterial destruction is now available in chemical disinfection of sewage effluents. The writer's studies at Boston, Baltimore and elsewhere have shown that the application of hypochlorite of calcium in amounts depending upon the character of the effluent, and ranging from one to five parts per million of available chlorine (25 to 125 pounds of bleaching powder per million gallons), will produce a bacterial removal amounting to 98 or 99 per cent. This disinfectant is the most efficient of the known germicides, cost being considered. By this means it is possible to practically eliminate the bacteria, good and bad, from an effluent and it is no longer necessary nor desirable to seek high bacterial removals in the purification process proper. By thus dividing the work of purification into its component parts each part can be carried out at a maximum of efficiency and economy.

DIVISION III.*

MICROBIOLOGY OF SOIL.

CHAPTER I.

MICROÖRGANISMS AS A FACTOR IN SOIL FERTILITY.

INTRODUCTION.

Rational views on soil fertility were first presented, in a systematic way, by Justus von Liebig in 1840. In his "Organic Chemistry in its Applications to Agriculture and Physiology" he developed important theories on the circulation of carbon and nitrogen in nature, and on the function of the so-called mineral constituents of plants.

When Liebig's book appeared many of the leaders and students of agriculture still believed that humus, the partly decomposed residues of plants and animals in the soil, was the direct food of crops. They believed that soils could yield poor or rich harvests in proportion to the amount of humus present in them; they believed, in other words, that plants, like animals, used organic substances as food.

Liebig rendered a great service to agriculture in emphasizing the significance of decay processes. He made it evident that humus as such is of no use to plants, and that it becomes valuable only in so far as it is resolved into the simple compounds carbon dioxide, ammonia, nitric acid and various mineral salts. To be sure, he regarded the decomposition of organic matter as a phenomenon purely chemical, nevertheless he succeeded in showing that decay, putrefaction and fermentation are fundamental facts, connecting links between the world of the living and the world of the dead.

The research of the following decades brought to light the intimate relation existing between microörganisms and the decomposition of

* Prepared by Jacob G. Lipman with exception of sub-chapter on "*Soil Inoculation*" which has been prepared by S. F. Edwards.

organic matter. In the realm of soil fertility the new discoveries revealed the vastness of the task assigned to soil microörganisms in providing available food for crops. It was shown that under the attack of bacteria and of other microörganisms the various organic débris in the soil are split into relatively small chemical fragments; that the carbon is restored to the air as carbon dioxide; that the nitrogen is changed into ammonia, nitrites and nitrates. It was shown, further, that in this breaking down of organic matter the various cleavage products, and, particularly, carbon dioxide, hasten, to an amazing extent, the weathering of the rock particles and make available thereby the mineral portion of plant food. It was shown, likewise, that apart from accomplishing the *transformation* of unavailable into available plant food, microörganisms are concerned also in the addition of nitrogen compounds to the soil. The evidence gathered slowly by many investigators made it plain, therefore, that microbes are an important factor in the growing of cultivated and uncultivated plants. Hence, the important place assigned to microörganisms in the study of soil fertility problems.

The Soil as a Culture Medium.

Arable soils present so wide a range of conditions as to modify, materially, the development and predominance of different species. Variations as to moisture, temperature, aeration, reaction, food supply and biological relations are important, in each case, in determining the survival or disappearance of any particular species. For this reason, the study of soil microörganisms must reckon with the mechanical composition of soils, their ability to retain water and their content of inert and soluble plant food.

Moisture Relations in the Soil.

Amount and Distribution of Rainfall.—Precipitation in different regions of the earth's surface varies from practically nothing to more than 1,524 cm. (600 in.) per annum. A portion of this water runs off the surface into the nearest stream, another portion is rapidly changed into vapor and is returned to the atmosphere, and the remainder passes downward, into the soil and becomes the medium in which plant food is dissolved. It is estimated that only about half the total rainfall percolates through the soil. Where the soils are open and nearly level

the proportion of percolating water is relatively greater; where the soils are fine-grained and more or less impervious, or the topography broken, the proportion is relatively smaller.

Bacteria and other microörganisms, as well as the higher plants, are directly influenced by the amount of moisture available for their various needs. Hence soil microbial activities are affected not alone by the amount of rainfall, but also by its distribution. It is obvious, for instance, that an annual rainfall of 762 mm. (30 in.) distributed rather uniformly throughout the year would produce different soil-moisture relations than the same amount of precipitation confined to only two or three months. As is pointed out by Abbe, a daily precipitation of 2 mm. (.079 in.) distributed throughout the three summer months would be quickly changed into vapor, and would hardly wet the soil; whereas the total quantity of 180 mm. (7 in.) evenly divided into ten or twelve rains would penetrate the soil to a considerable depth, and would furnish very favorable conditions for microbial development. In a similar manner it is pointed out by Hilgard that Central Montana, and the region in the vicinity of the bay of San Francisco, have each a total precipitation of 610 mm. (24 in.). But while in Montana the rainfall is distributed over the entire year and irrigation becomes necessary, the precipitation near San Francisco is limited to the portion of the year that nearly coincides with the growing season, and crops are enabled to mature without irrigation.

Range of Soil Moisture.—Any given volume of dry soil consists of solid particles separated by empty spaces. The sum of these spaces is known as the "pore-space." It varies from about one-third of the entire volume in coarse sands to more than two-thirds in pipe clay. In peat and muck it may amount to as much as 80 or 90 per cent, of the entire volume. Under air-dry conditions each soil grain is surrounded by a very thin film of moisture designated as hygroscopic water. When air-dry soil is moistened the films around the soil particles become thicker and finally cease to be isolated. A continuous liquid membrane, as it were, is stretched from particle to particle, and the surface tension that thus comes into play is capable of lifting large amounts of water to the surface. The continuous film of soil water that can hold its own against the pull of gravity is known as capillary water. Finally, when the liquid films around the soil grains increase in thickness beyond a certain point, the attraction between the molecules in the soil grains and the more

distant molecules of water is no longer great enough to overcome the force of gravitation, and the excess of water percolates downward. The water more or less readily moved by gravitation is called hydrostatic water.

For any given conditions the amount of hydrostatic, capillary and hygroscopic water in soils is directly dependent on their mechanical composition of the soil. It is evident that the aggregate surface of the particles in a fine-grained soil is much greater than that in a coarse-grained soil. Actual determinations have shown that the aggregate inner surface of one cubic foot of coarse sand may be but a fraction of an acre; whereas the same quantity of the finest clay may have an inner surface equivalent to three or four acres. These differences are to be expected, since, as is shown by Lyon and Fippin, 1 g. of fine gravel may contain 252 particles; 1 g. of medium sand, 13,500 particles; 1 g. of very fine sand, 1,687,000 particles; 1 g. of silt, 65,100,000 particles, and 1 g. of clay, 45,500,000,000 particles.

Since the soil water is spread as a film over the solid particles and varies in amount with the fineness or coarseness of the soil, and since the quantity of plant food going into solution is determined largely by the amount of water in contact with the soil particles, it follows that clay soils will, under the same conditions, contain more plant food in solution than loam soils and still more than sandy soils. From the standpoint of soil microbiology this is important, for the microörganisms live and multiply in the film water surrounding the soil particles. The concentration of salts in this film water as well as their composition must of necessity affect bacterial activities. In the same way, methods of tillage and cropping affecting the concentration and composition of the film water will modify the chemical changes caused by bacteria.

Effect of Drought and of Excessive Moisture.—Optimum conditions for plant growth and the development of many important soil bacteria are furnished when about half of the entire pore space is filled with water. In light sandy soils the optimum moisture content may be reached when the wet material contains scarcely more than 8 to 10 per cent of water by weight; while in silt and clay soils the optimum may reach 16 to 20 per cent or even more.

Continued depletion of soil moisture by plant roots and evaporation at the surface causes the film of capillary water to stretch more and more. Finally it becomes very thin, breaks, and ceases to be continuous. The

soil then becomes air-dry and contains only hygroscopic water. It is estimated by Lyon and Fippin that, under average conditions of humidity, light sand will contain 0.5 to 1 per cent of hygroscopic moisture; silt loam, 2 to 4 per cent; and clay, 8 to 12 per cent. The amount of water present in air-dry muck or peat may range up to 40 per cent, or even more. According to Hall the film of hygroscopic moisture is about 0.75μ (0.00003 in.) thick. As the soil dries out bacterial activity is suspended and many vegetative cells undoubtedly perish. Nevertheless, it will be seen that the moisture film even in air-dry material is deep enough to allow the bacteria a reasonable degree of protection. This will account for the survival of non-spore-bearing bacteria in dry soil for a long time. Indeed, instances are on record of the isolation of *Azotobacter* and *Nitrosomonas* from soils that had been kept in a dry state in the laboratory for several years. It may be noted, in this connection, that in the process of drying the soluble salts in the soil may be sufficiently concentrated in the thin films to cause plasmolysis and the destruction of individual cells.

On the other hand, excessive moisture in the soil is not only directly unfavorable to aerobic species in that it limits their supply of oxygen, but is objectionable because it encourages the formation of reduction products that are toxic to these species. It is apparent, therefore, that favorable conditions for the formation of available plant food by bacteria are created when a certain relation is established between the volumes of moisture and air in the soil. The shifting of this relation in one direction or another is bound to react on species relationships and numbers.

Aeration.

Mechanical Composition of Soils.—Soil ventilation is an important factor in crop production. It provides for the proper supply of elementary oxygen so essential to decomposition processes in normal soils; for the supply of elementary nitrogen required by nitrogen-fixing species; for the removal of excessive amounts of carbon dioxide; and for the destruction of various toxic substances. The intimate relation existing between soil ventilation and the mechanical composition of the soil material is bound to react on the microbial factors involved. It is well known that the rate of flow of air through soils is inversely proportional to the fineness of the material; in other words, the fine-grained

soils, notwithstanding their greater pore space, will not allow air to pass through them as rapidly as coarse-grained soils. King shows, for instance, that 5000 c.c. of air passed through a column of fine gravel in thirty-seven seconds, whereas in similar columns of medium sand, fine sand, loam and fine clay soil the same amount of air required for its passage 1,178, 44,310, 282,200, and 2,057,000 seconds respectively.

AEROBIC AND ANAEROBIC ACTIVITIES.—The more rapid diffusion of gases from open soils naturally leads to a more frequent renewal of their oxygen supply. In its turn, the latter affects the ratio of aerobes to anaerobes; it follows, therefore, that in clay soils and clay loam soils the activities of aerobic species are retarded to a greater extent than they are in sandy loams or sandy soils. It follows, also, that in fine grained soils the activities of the aerobes are confined to a shallower soil layer than in coarser grained soils. The reverse is true of anaerobic species. Methods of soil treatment tending to improve soil ventilation react both on the amount of chemical change produced by definite species, as well as the numerical ratio of different species to one another. Among such methods may be included drainage, liming, manuring and tillage.

RATE OF OXIDATION OF CARBON, HYDROGEN AND NITROGEN.—Experiments carried out by Wollny proved conclusively that the production of carbon dioxide in soils is directly affected by the amount of oxygen supplied; that is, by the more or less thorough aeration of the soil. In one of these experiments air containing varying proportions of oxygen and nitrogen was passed through columns of soil. When this air contained 21 per cent of oxygen there were produced for every 1000 volumes of air 12.51 volumes of carbon dioxide; while with 2 per cent of oxygen in the entering air there were produced only 3.62 volumes of carbon dioxide. Similar observations were made by Schloesing in connection with the formation of carbon dioxide and of nitric acid. Dehérain and many others have recorded the favorable influence of aeration on the rate of nitrate formation, while Lipman and Koch have observed an increased fixation of nitrogen by *Azotobacter*, consequent upon a better supply of oxygen.

THE MINERALIZATION OF ORGANIC MATTER.—Conditions that favor the intense activities of decay bacteria lead to a relatively rapid restoration of the phosphorus, sulphur, calcium, magnesium and potassium that had been made fast in plant tissues, to the stock of available plant food in the soil; indeed, in extremely well aerated soils the decomposition of or-

ganic matter and its ultimate mineralization proceed too fast. It often happens that the farmer is unable to maintain a proper supply of humus in these soils because of their openness and is forced to adopt measures that will retard soil aeration. He resorts therefore, to rolling, marling, manuring and green manuring.

On the other hand, heavy, fine-grained soils are not sufficiently well aerated to allow a rapid mineralization of the organic matter. Under extreme conditions the decomposition processes do not keep pace with the process making toward the accumulation of organic matter, and a more or less considerable increase in the amount of the latter takes place. This occurs in low lying meadows, and, more particularly, in bogs and swamps. Hence the farmer attempts to intensify aeration and the resulting mineralization of the humus by more thorough tillage, drainage, liming and manuring.

TEMPERATURE.

INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE AND SEASON.—An illustration of the differences that may exist in the soil temperatures of different regions is given by a comparison of the mean temperatures of 1901 recorded at Moscow, Idaho, and New Brunswick, New Jersey. The soil temperatures were taken to a depth of 152 mm. (6 inches).

*Soil Temperature,** 1901.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mch.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Moscow, Idaho	32	30	35	40	52	58	68	72	57	50	40	34
New Brunswick, N. J.	31.5	28.6	35.3	47	57.9	72.1	76.4	73.4	68.5	56.0	41.1	33.4

*Air Temperatures,** 1901.

Moscow, Idaho	30	30.5	38.3	44.0	56.9	55.0	65.5	69.6	50.3	50.5	39.5	39.0
New Brunswick, N. J.	30.8	24.8	39.1	48.3	59.2	70.9	77.4	74.6	67.6	54.6	38.6	32.6

*Recorded in Fahrenheit scale.

It will be observed that in the months of November to March the soil temperatures in the two places were nearly the same. On the other hand, in April to October the average temperatures at New Brunswick were for soil 14.5° (58° F.) and for air 22.5° (72° F.), respectively; and in July

they were 20.0° (68° F.) and 24.5° (76.4° F.) respectively. It will also be observed that there is an unmistakable relation between the corresponding air and soil temperatures.

As a further illustration of the relation of climate to temperature a comparison may be made of the average daily mean temperatures at Bismarck, North Dakota, for the period 1873–1895, and at Key West, Florida, for the period 1872–1895.

Daily Mean Temperatures (Air).*

	Jan.	Feb.	Mch.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bismarck, N. D.	4.5	9.5	22.6	42.1	54.2	63.8	69.5	67.5	57.0	43.8	25.9	14.7
Key West, Fla.	69.7	71.4	72.7	76.1	79.4	82.5	83.9	83.9	82.5	78.5	74.2	70.0

*Recorded in Fahrenheit scale.

It is obvious from the figures given here that, because of the important temperature variations of different soil regions, the microbiological activities must be profoundly modified. But apart from the climatic variations already indicated there are seasonal variations in any particular locality that are of great moment for soil microbiological activities. Such differences are demonstrated by the temperatures of 1898 and 1902, taken to a depth of 152 mm. (6 inches), at New Brunswick, N. J.

*Soil Temperatures.**

	Jan.	Feb.	Mch.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
New Brunswick, N J. (1898).	33.2	33.1	45.1	48.9	59.1	76.0	79.3	77.8	72.0	60.1	44.6	33.6
New Brunswick N. J. (1902).	30.7	28.9	41.3	49.5	60.4	68.0	72.6	70.5	65.9	56.4	48.6	34.1

*Recorded in Fahrenheit scale.

In this instance, the season of 1898 was not only earlier, but the temperatures of June to September were sufficiently higher to favor more intense bacterial growth and activity.

EARLY AND LATE SOILS.—Under any given climatic conditions the warming up of soils in the spring will depend on their chemical and mechanical composition, color, tillage and topography. Because of the

high specific heat of water, fine-grained soils containing a relatively large amount of moisture will warm up more slowly than coarse-grained soils containing a relatively small amount of moisture. The differences in the specific heat of humus, sand, clay and chalk are less important, yet they introduce appreciable variations in the soil temperature according to the proportion of each present. The topography of the soil introduces a factor of some importance for it affects the inclination toward the sun's rays as well as the drainage conditions. Tillage operations are of considerable moment, since they influence the rate of evaporation, that is, the rate at which heat is lost from the soil by the transformation of liquid water into vapor. Finally the color of soils exerts an influence on their temperature in that it affects the absorption and reflection of heat.

Taking all of the factors together, it is found that sandy soils and sandy loams are early soils, because they part readily with their excess of water. Clay soils and clay loams are, on the other hand, late soils; it means, therefore, that in the more open soils microbial activities become intense earlier in the spring. Market gardeners usually attempt to improve matters still further by the use of large quantities of readily fermentable manure that develops enough heat to slightly raise the soil temperature.

PRODUCTION AND ASSIMILATION OF PLANT FOOD.—It was already observed by Möller that slight amounts of carbon dioxide may be evolved from frozen soil. Kostychev could detect a considerable production of carbon dioxide at 0°–5°. In a series of experiments carried out by Wollny the amounts of carbon dioxide produced were as follows:

CO_2 in 1000 Vols. of Air.

Water in Soil	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°
6.79 per cent.....	2.03	3.22	6.86	14.69	25.17
26.79 per cent.....	18.38	54.22	63.50	80.06	81.52
46.79 per cent	35.07	61.49	82.12	91.86	97.48

The increased production of carbon dioxide at the higher temperatures, as shown in the above table, correspond with the observations that had already been made by Ebermayer, Schloesing and others, that carbon dioxide production in the soil is greater in summer than it is in winter. These facts, taken together with the early observations of Forster on the multiplication of photo-bacteria at 0°, and the more recent observations

of numerous investigators on the multiplication of individual species, or of mixtures of species in milk, water, soil, butter, etc., at 0°, or even below that, make it evident that bacterial activities are not entirely suspended at relatively low temperatures. As the latter rises these activities become more intense as gauged by the formation of carbon dioxide.

Coming down to specific groups of soil bacteria, it may be noted that at 12° nitrification is already quite perceptible; that urea bacteria grow slowly at 5°; *Ps. radicicola* at 4°; members of the *B. subtilis* group at 6°–10°, etc. At 15° the breaking down of organic matter is fairly rapid, and at 25° the optimum is reached for many species. It follows, thus, that the production of plant food—namely, ammonia, nitrates, sulphates, phosphates, etc.—gains rapid headway as the optimum temperatures are approached. The organic matter itself, apart from serving as a source of plant food, furnishes carbon dioxide and various organic acids that help to attack the rock fragments and to render available compounds of phosphorus, potassium, calcium and magnesium. It is likewise evident that in warm countries bacterial activities are not only more intense at any one time, but they continue through a longer period. For this reason, the soils of the South can furnish both relatively and absolutely a greater amount of available plant food than the soils of the North.

The production of plant food is necessarily followed by more vigorous growth of bacteria and of higher plants. More food is, therefore, assimilated and more moisture used up until the very rank growth of the crops hastens the depletion of the soil moisture. In this manner the soil may be dried out sufficiently to retard seriously the growth of soil bacteria and to retard thereby the decomposition of organic matter; under such conditions, moisture, rather than temperature, becomes the controlling factor of growth.

Reaction.

Range of Soil Acidity.—Acid soils are very common in humid regions. The older soils of Europe include extensive areas whose lime content has been restored repeatedly by the application of wood ashes, marl, oyster and clam shells, and various grades of burned or crushed limestone. In the United States acidity is becoming prevalent in many of the cultivated soils, as is shown by the investigations of the Rhode Island, Ohio, Illinois, Oregon and Florida experiment stations. These investigations, confirmed by experiments in other states, show that there

is a marked removal of lime and of other basic materials from the soil as cultivation and the use of commercial fertilizers become more thorough. Knisley shows, for instance, that 38.75 per cent of the Oregon soils examined were acid, and that 16.25 per cent were strongly acid. Similarly, Blair found that of 189 soil samples of different Florida soils and subsoils, examined, 68.22 per cent of the former and 51.35 per cent of the latter were acid. He also found that virgin soils were less acid than cultivated soils.

CAUSES OF SOIL ACIDITY.—Soil acidity may be due to acids or acid salts, both inorganic and organic. Under ordinary conditions the latter are of much greater importance than the former as a cause of soil acidity. This is demonstrated by the extremely acid conditions of peat and muck soils that are particularly rich in organic acids. In soils left to themselves the formation of basic substances in the breaking down of silicates and other compounds keeps pace with their neutralization by acid and their removal in the drainage water. When soils are placed under cultivation, lime and other bases are removed more rapidly and the inert humic acids are left behind. The loss of bases is intensified by application of acid phosphate, potash salts and ammonium sulphate, commonly used as fertilizers. This accounts for the less extensive acidity in and among virgin soils as compared with cultivated soils. Arid soils lose scarcely any of their basic substances by leaching and are seldom acid. Residual limestone soils may be alkaline, neutral or acid, according to the loss of bases they have suffered by leaching. Low-lying soils, including meadows and swamps may accumulate large amounts of organic acids because of their imperfect aeration.

EFFECT OF REACTION ON NUMBERS AND SPECIES.—Some of the important groups of soil bacteria including nitro, azoto and ammonifying species will develop slowly or not at all, when the amount of acid in the medium is increased beyond a certain point. Hence it is realized by progressive farmers that a proper supply of lime is essential for the satisfactory decomposition of organic matter in the soil, and the abundant supply of available nitrogen compounds, as well as of other constituents of plant food to growing crops. The influence of lime on the multiplication of soil bacteria is well illustrated, for instance, by the experiments of Fabricius and von Feilitzen. These investigators found only 138,500 bacteria per g. in newly broken and unlimed peat soils; whereas in similar soils that had been limed and cultivated for several years the

numbers averaged about 7,000,000 per g. and reached a maximum of 22,132,000 per g.

Food Supply.

Organic Matter.—It may be said truly that a soil devoid of organic matter is practically devoid of bacteria. To the fresh and the partially decomposed (humus) organic matter the soil organisms must look for most of their food and energy. Being largely of plant origin this organic matter contains starches, fats, organic acids, higher alcohols, proteins and amino-compounds. Because of the different relations that these vegetable substances bear to the several species of soil bacteria, a high or low proportion of starch, of cellulose, or protein must necessarily modify both numbers and species relationships. For instance, observations have been made by Coleman and others that small amounts of dextrose favor nitrification, whereas larger quantities retard it; similarly, it has been noted that in the spontaneous decomposition of protein bodies bacteria are prominent and molds absent or relatively few in numbers. But where dextrose is added to the decomposing proteins molds soon appear in large numbers. There may also be cited, in this connection, the observations of Hilgard that humus should contain at least 4 per cent of nitrogen if it is to furnish a sufficient quantity of available nitrogen compounds; otherwise, the soil bacteria seem to be unable to decompose it, so as to meet the needs of the growing plants. Many similar facts could be cited to show that as a culture medium the soil is influenced by green manures, barnyard manure, commercial fertilizers, lime, tillage and any other treatment that will modify the quantity as well as the quality of its organic matter.

The Mineral Portion of the Soil.—The moisture films surrounding the soil grains contain in solution substances derived from these soil grains. A particle of calcium carbonate will be surrounded by a moisture film containing some calcium bicarbonate. In the same way particles of feldspar may give rise to a solution of potassium bicarbonate; particles of apatite to a solution of calcium phosphate; particles of selenite to a solution of calcium sulphate; particles of protein to a solution of ammonia, etc. In view of the fact that these reactions are more or less localized and diffusion slow, there are, undoubtedly, in the soil minute zones where individual species are more prominent than they are in others. For example, Heinze has found it convenient to isolate *Azotobacter* by inocu-

lating suitable culture solutions with particles of calcium carbonate picked out from the soil. Evidently these organisms were present in much greater abundance on these particles than on others of non-calcareous origin. Indeed, he occasionally obtained in this manner *Azotobacter* membranes that constituted almost pure cultures. The more general significance of this relation is apparent when it is remembered that nitro bacteria are particularly favored by magnesium carbonate; tubercle bacteria by gypsum and calcium carbonate; *Azotobacter* by calcium phosphate and calcium carbonate; photo-bacteria by sodium chloride, etc.

Considerable as must be the local differences in any one soil, they are undoubtedly even more pronounced when different soils are compared. Extreme conditions are met with in certain irrigated soils in which a marked concentration of salts occurs. In so far as crop production is concerned, it is stated by Hilgard that the upper limit is practically reached when the concentration of soluble salts in the irrigation water is about 4.55 g. (70 gr.) per gallon. Nevertheless, in Egypt and the Sahara region irrigation water is occasionally used that contains more than 13 g. (200 gr.) of soluble salts per gallon. Further differences are introduced by the quality of these salts, *e.g.*, the proportion of sodium sulphate, magnesium sulphate, sodium chloride, sodium carbonate, etc. Again, instances are on record, as in the investigations of Headden in Colorado and California, where the concentration of nitrates in the soil water is so great as to kill even relatively resistant plants like alfalfa. It is to be shown by future investigations what the effect of the concentration and composition of such salts may be on the soil bacteria.

In humid soils conditions are less extreme, yet even here the variable concentration and composition of the soil solution are of direct moment for the different microörganisms. Granite soils, for instance, are fairly well supplied with phosphoric acid and abundantly with potash, but when hornblende is lacking they are apt to be deficient in lime. Ill-ventilated clay soils may contain reduction products of iron salts, while green sand, chalk, slate, shale, sandstone and other soils may have their individual peculiarities from the standpoint of a culture medium.

Biological Factors.

Molds.—Soil bacteria must not only compete with other microörganisms and higher plants for their food, but must contend with unfavor-

able changes caused in their medium by the competing organisms. In the case of molds a sufficient degree of acidity is often produced in the medium to retard or stop the growth of bacteria. This point is well illustrated by the prominent development of molds in culture solutions containing ammonium salts as the sole source of nitrogen. When the ammonium salts are replaced by nitrates under certain conditions the growth of molds is practically suppressed and bacteria come to the fore. In the soil itself the rapid development of molds has been observed in plots or pots receiving large additions of ammonium salts, a phenomenon due to the acid residues of the ammonium salts. The nitrates, on the other hand, give rise to alkaline residues since the "NO_3" radical is used up in greater proportion than the basic radical. Similarly, molds are enabled to compete with bacteria when the proportion of sugar or of starch to protein is increased, or where large amounts of fats are present.

ALGÆ.—At times the influence of algæ in changing the character of the soil as a culture medium for bacteria is quite considerable. As chlorophyl-bearing organisms they are enabled to manufacture sugar and starch with the aid of sunlight, and favor thus the development of *Azotobacter* and of other microörganisms dependent for their energy on the organic matter in the soil. Investigators both in France and in Germany have found that the fixation of nitrogen in sand used for pot culture experiments occurs in the surface layer possessing a growth of algæ. The advocates of bare fallows attribute the greater productivity of fallowed land to the growth of algæ, the accumulation of nitrogen by them and to other changes affecting the soil bacteria.

PROTOZOA.—It has been known for a long time that certain species of protozoa are common in soils and that their food consists of bacteria. To what extent protozoa play a part in soil fertility has not yet been fully explained, even though Russell and Hutchinson of the Rothamsted Experiment Station have maintained that these minute animals are extremely important in that they maintain a certain bacterial equilibrium in the soil. Their claim is mainly based on the fact that partially sterilized soils (either by means of heat or antiseptics) soon come to contain enormous numbers of bacteria. It is, therefore, assumed by them that this abnormal increase is made possible by the destruction of the protozoa that normally check the increase beyond a certain point.

HIGHER PLANTS.—Higher plants modify the soil as a culture medium for bacteria in at least three ways. The root-hairs come in contact with

the moisture films surrounding the soil grains and not only modify the composition of the film water, by withdrawing a portion of the dissolved matter, but also change its character by secretions from the roots. The changes thus effected must, necessarily, modify the character of the soil and the soil solution as a culture medium. Again, the rapid removal of water from the soil by growing crops causes the film water to become more concentrated in so far, at least, as some salts are concerned. Modifications are, also, introduced thereby in the proportions of oxygen, nitrogen and carbon dioxide in the soil air. Finally, higher plants modify the soil environment for bacteria by their root and stubble residues. For example, residues of leguminous plants, being richer in nitrogen and possessing a narrower carbon-nitrogen ratio than the corresponding residues of non-legumes, will affect the soil somewhat differently than the latter.

BACTERIA.—Occupying, as they do, the leading rôle, bacteria demand a more detailed consideration, in fact, most of the biological discussions of soil are based upon a knowledge of these organisms.

Numbers and Distribution; (Bacteria in Productive and Unproductive Soils).—Among the various factors that affect the numbers of bacteria in the soil moisture, aeration, food supply and reaction have already been discussed as important. Sandy soils because of their relative dryness and poverty in organic matter contain a comparatively small number of bacteria, at times less than 100,000 per g. and usually less than 1,000,000 per g. But when such sandy soils receive deep and thorough cultivation and are enriched in organic matter the numbers increase to several millions per g. In most loam soils in a good state of cultivation the numbers range from about 1,000,000 to several millions per g. In heavy, compact soils the aeration conditions are unsatisfactory, acid substances and reduction products accumulate and the numbers are greatly reduced. Again, in peat and muck soils the numbers of bacteria are small when the reaction is markedly acid. It has been found that under such conditions the molds are more numerous than the bacteria and that the latter often occur to the extent of less than 100,000 per g. Generally speaking, the higher the state of cultivation the greater the number of bacteria in the soil. It increases as we pass from forest and prairie to plowed fields, and from extensive field practice to intensive garden practice. Under special conditions, as in green-house soils generously supplied with manure and moisture, in sewage polluted soils, and in soils partly steri-

lized by heat or antiseptics the numbers may become enormous, 50,000,000 or even 100,000,000 per g. of material.

Distribution at Different Depths.—Most of the soil bacteria are found in the stratum in which the organic residues are concentrated, that is, in the surface soil. Immediately at the surface the rapid evaporation and the germicidal effect of direct sunshine act as disturbing factors, hence the numbers in the uppermost 25–50 mm. (1–2 in.) are smaller than in the layer of soil immediately below. Beyond the depth of 20 cm. or 22 cm. (8 or 9 in.) the numbers diminish rapidly. Material from a depth of .6 M. to .9 M. (2 to 3 ft.) is nearly sterile in humid regions. Differences occur, however, in keeping with the mechanical composition of the soil. In light, open soils the bacteria are not only carried down to greater depths by the percolating water, but can also multiply there, thanks to better aeration. On the contrary, fine-grained, compact soils are more effective in holding back suspended material and do not allow the bacteria to pass downward as readily. Moreover, the less thorough aeration of these soils and the accumulation of toxic reduction products in the the subsoil serve as an effective check on the increase of bacteria in the deeper layers.

In irrigated soils of the arid and semi-arid regions bacteria are distributed at much greater depths. Their occurrence 2 M. to 3 M. (8 or 10 ft.) below the surface is made possible not only by the better aeration of these soils, but by the penetration of roots to great depths and the accumulation there of considerable amounts of organic matter. The practical significance of distribution appears, among other things, in the use of soil for inoculation purposes; for instance, it is reported by Salström that in making peat soils arable the addition of small amounts of fertile loam increases to a very marked extent their crop-producing power. The efficiency of the inoculating material decreases as it is taken from the deeper soil layers. Similarly, in the use of alfalfa soil for the inoculation of new fields the most efficient material is secured at a depth between 7.62 cm. and 17.78 cm.(3 and 7 in.).

Morphological and Physiological Groups. (*Morphological Groups*).—Rod-shaped organisms are numerically the most prominent among soil bacteria. They occur at times to the extent of 80 or 90 per cent of the total number. Spherical organisms usually constitute less than 25 per cent of the bacterial flora. *Spirilla* and *Sarcinæ* are present in slight numbers. Conditions may occur, however, when the proportion of

spherical organisms is markedly increased. This happens, particularly, when large quantities of composted manure (rich in spherical organisms) is added to the soil.

Among the rod-shaped species *B. mycoides*, *B. subtilis*, *B. mesentericus* *B. tumescens* and other members of the subtilis group are quite prominent. Members of the amylobacter group are seldom absent. Members of the proteus group and various fluorescents are always present, while *Bact. ærogenes* and allied species are common inhabitants of the soil.

(*Physiological Groups*).—In the decomposition of organic matter in the soil certain important changes in both nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous material are accomplished by definite groups of bacteria. The breaking down of protein substances is accomplished by the formation of ammonia, nitrites and nitrates. These in turn may be transformed back into more complex amino-compounds, peptones, and proteins, or they may be destroyed with the evolution of free nitrogen. Moreover, there are groups of bacteria capable of joining non-nitrogenous organic matter to elementary nitrogen and of fashioning thus nitrogen compounds. Again, there are groups of bacteria bearing distinct and important relations to the decomposition of cellulose, or the transformation of its cleavage products, methane and hydrogen. There are, likewise, definite groups of bacteria concerned in the transformation of sulphur and its compounds, and of ferrous compounds.

Methods of Study.

Quantitative Relations.—Since the early work of Koch in 1881 many investigators have determined the number of bacteria in soil samples, by means of the plate method. It is well known, however, that on ordinary gelatin or agar plates kept under aerobic conditions but a fraction of the soil organisms produce visible colonies. The anaerobic species do not appear, nor do aerobic *Azotobacter*, and nitro bacteria, while other common soil organisms form colonies sparingly or not at all. By employing synthetic agar media instead of beef broth gelatin or agar, Lipman and Brown have succeeded in securing the growth of a much larger number of colonies from any given quantity of soil, yet even these larger numbers were incomplete for reasons mentioned above. It is evident, therefore, that the results secured in the counting of soil bacteria have a relative value only. With the same media and methods

some information may be secured concerning the influence of fertilization, tillage, liming, etc., on certain of the soil bacteria. But even this information must be properly discounted, since equal numbers do not necessarily mean equal amounts of chemical work accomplished; for example, there is no certainty that 1,000,000 of decay bacteria derived from one soil will accomplish exactly as much decomposition as the same number of similar organisms from another soil. Otherwise stated, individual cells differ in their *physiological efficiency* from other cells of the same species.

QUALITATIVE REACTIONS.—By modifying the composition of the culture media different physiological groups may be favored in their development. In this manner the silica jelly medium proposed by Winogradski, or the gypsum plates proposed by Omelianski may be employed for making numerical comparisons of nitro bacteria in different soils. In like manner Beyerinck's mannit agar may be used for the numerical comparison of *Azotobacter*, and other media could be adapted for the quantitative-qualitative determination of urea, denitrifying, methane, and still other physiological groups of microörganisms.

There is no doubt that the quantitative-qualitative method just outlined may be made to yield valuable information. Yet it, too, possesses defects already noted in connection with the more strictly quantitative method. Apart from the vast amount of work involved in the preparation of a large number of media and in the counting of colonies on many plates, this method fails to indicate differences in physiological efficiency. Furthermore, the colonies of the specific organisms sought are almost invariably accompanied by those of foreign species not always easily distinguished. With these limitations properly recognized and with further improvement in the make-up of special media the method may be made useful in supplementing data secured by other methods.

TRANSFORMATION REACTIONS.—Instead of counting soil bacteria in accordance with colonies produced in general or special media, soil investigators have attempted to measure the bacteriological functions of soils by comparing more or less definite quantities of the latter under known conditions. This method was employed by Wollny and others in studying the factors that affect the formation of carbon dioxide in soils. It was also used by Schloesing and Müntz and their followers in similar studies on nitrate formation. A method somewhat similar in principle but different in its application was proposed by Remy in 1902. He

suggested the use of special media for the quantitative estimation of different physiological reactions; thus, making a 1 per cent solution of peptone and inoculating with equivalent quantities of soil, he caused the decomposition of the peptone and the formation of ammonia, and secured comparisons of the ammonifying power of different soils. In a similar manner he used special solutions for comparing quantitatively the transformation accomplished by nitrifying, denitrifying or nitrogen-fixing bacteria.

Remy's method has been extensively tested by Löhnis, Ehrenberg, Lipman and others. It has been shown to possess a serious defect in that it deals with conditions unlike those occurring in the soil itself. For this reason more recent investigations have been carried on in weighed portions of soil rather than in culture solutions inoculated with 10 per cent of soil as is done in Remy's method.

RATE OF OXIDATION OF CARBON.—The rate of decomposition of humus or of other organic matter in the soil may be measured, as was done by Wollny, by determining the amount of carbon dioxide evolved in weighed quantities of material kept under definite conditions. The influence of temperature, moisture, aeration, organic matter, antiseptics, etc., has been determined in this manner. The same method may be used in studying decay, and factors influencing decay, in soils *in situ* that is, in the field.

More recently Russell and his associates have modified the method in that they have determined the rate of oxidation of carbon not by measuring the carbon dioxide evolved, but by estimating the amount of oxygen absorbed. In either case decay is measured from the carbon standpoint. The method based on this principle should find wide application in future soil fertility investigations.

RATE OF OXIDATION OF NITROGEN.—Another method or series of methods for studying decomposition processes in the soil may be based on the determination of nitrogen compounds formed in the breaking down of proteins. Two of the derivatives of protein, namely, ammonia and nitrate, have been used successfully to gauge the decomposition of organic matter in the soil. The recent results secured by Lipman and his associates demonstrate that ammonia formation from dried blood in weighed quantities of soil may serve as a very accurate measure of decay from the nitrogen standpoint. Corresponding determination of nitrates may similarly be employed in tracing protein cleavage and trans-

formation as influenced by the numerous factors of season, soil and cultivation.

ADDITION OF NITROGEN.—At least one other bacteriological factor in soils should be mentioned here as deserving attention in a systematic study of soil fertility from the nitrogen standpoint. It is known that *Azo-bacteria* are widely distributed in arable soils, and that they are more prominent in some regions than they are in others. The student of soil fertility finds it desirable, therefore, to study azotofication in different soils, and employs (for this purpose) mannit solutions like those proposed by Beyerinck, sand cultures supplied with sugar solutions like those proposed by Fischer, or weighed quantities of soil mixed with sugar as suggested by Koch.

The methods referred to above make possible thus the study of ammonification, nitrification and azotofication under controlled conditions and permit, thereby, the measure of bacteriological factors in soil fertility from the nitrogen standpoint.

REACTIONS CONCERNING CALCIUM, MAGNESIUM, SULPHUR AND PHOSPHORUS.—In addition to the purely chemical methods available for the study of these constituents, microbiological methods have also been suggested. In some of his still unpublished experiments with *Azotobacter* Lipman employed solutions of mannit in distilled water, provided with small quantities of sterile soil which were to supply the organisms with the essential mineral constituents. In this manner interesting data were secured on the availability of phosphorus compounds in different soils; similarly, Christensen has suggested the use of *Azotobacter* for determining the lime requirements of soils, and Butkevich has experimented with cultures of *Aspergillus niger* in determining the availability of the mineral constituents.

CHAPTER II.

THE DECOMPOSITION OF ORGANIC MATTER IN THE SOIL.

Carbohydrates

Origin.—The sugars, starches, vegetable gums and allied pectine substances, as well as the cellulose, contained in roots and other crop residues add large quantities of carbohydrates to the soil. The crop residues are augmented still further by green manures and animal manures whenever these are used. A good growth of timothy, for example, may increase the content of organic matter in the surface soil by five hundred or a thousand pounds per acre, and three-quarters of this consists of carbohydrates. In the same manner, a green manure crop, or an application of barnyard manure may add to the land as much as fifteen hundred pounds, or even more, of carbohydrates per acre. These carbohydrates contain a large proportion of cellulose.

The Decomposition of Cellulose.—Pure cellulose $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_x$ is a rather inert substance, as exemplified by the resistance of cotton and flax fiber to decomposition processes. It is well known, nevertheless, that even cellulose is in the end decomposed and resolved into simple compounds. Plant roots, leaves and stems, as well as the trunks of fallen trees, gradually distintegrate and vanish. Under favorable conditions this may proceed rapidly, as is indicated by the processes in septic tanks, or in manure heaps on the one hand, and in open sandy soils on the other. The disappearance of cellulose may be accomplished by (a) anaerobic organisms, (b) by aerobic organisms, (c) by denitrifying bacteria, and (d) by molds.

The Production of Methane and Hydrogen.—The decomposition of pure cellulose and the formation of methane and hydrogen mixed with other gases was first noted by Popov in 1875. Some years later Tappeiner and also Hoppe-Seyler confirmed Popov's observations that nearly pure cellulose in the form of Swedish filter-paper, or cotton fiber may be fermented by bacteria with the evolution of methane, carbon dioxide and occasionally also of hydrogen. These investigators ascribed the decom-

position of cellulose to an organism found by Trécul in decomposing vegetable materials, and named by him *Amylobacter* in 1865, because of the blue color assumed by it when stained with iodine.

Subsequent investigations by Omelianski begun in 1894 and continued through a period of years demonstrated the presence of specific anaerobic organisms in decomposing cellulose. He described two distinct species of long, slender bacilli, assuming the clostridium form when in the spore stage. Morphologically the organisms can hardly be distinguished, but physiologically they show important differences in that one causes the fermentation of cellulose with the production of gases consisting of carbon dioxide and methane, while the gases produced by the other consist of carbon dioxide and hydrogen; hence the one is designated by Omelianski as the methane bacillus and the other the hydrogen bacillus. These organisms do not stain blue with iodine, and do not belong, therefore, to the butyric bacilli designated as *Amylobacter* by earlier investigators. Omelianski's investigations make it appear that the butyric organisms are not capable of fermenting cellulose proper.

In culture solutions containing mineral salts and nitrogen in the form of ammonium compounds the decomposition of filter-paper and other forms of cellulose proceeds with considerable rapidity. Calcium carbonate must be added to neutralize the acids formed, otherwise the fermentation soon comes to a standstill. In one of Omelianski's experiments begun in October, 1895, and ended in November, 1896, 3.3471 g. of cellulose was decomposed by a nearly pure culture of hydrogen bacilli. The products consisted of 2.2402 g. fatty acids, 0.9722 g. carbon dioxide and 0.0138 g. of hydrogen, a total of 3.2262 g. which nearly accounts for all of the cellulose destroyed. The fatty acids were made up of butyric and acetic acids with a slight proportion of some higher homologue, probably valerianic acid.

In a similar experiment with an apparently pure culture of the methane bacillus, begun in December, 1900, and ended in April, 1901, fermentation began after an incubation period of about one month, and the entire volume of gas gradually evolved was 552.2 c.c. This mixture consisted of 190.8 c.c. methane and 361.4 c.c. carbon dioxide. The products formed from the 2.0065 g. cellulose consumed included 1.0223 g. fatty acids, 0.8678 g. carbon dioxide and 0.1372 g. of methane, or a total of 2.0273 g. The slight difference in weight in favor of the fermentation products falls within the limit of error. These experiments show

that about one half of the fermentation products is gaseous and that the other half consists of acetic and butyric acids.

THE OXIDATION OF METHANE, HYDROGEN AND CARBON MONOXIDE.—Aside from cellulose, methane may also be produced from various other carbohydrates, organic acids and proteins. Large amounts of methane are thus contributed to the atmosphere by swamps, manure heaps and low-lying meadows. In a purely chemical way methane may also be set free from volcanoes and mineral springs. The constant additions of methane, ethane, hydrogen and carbon monoxide represent a considerable amount of potential energy. It is important to know, therefore, whether these materials are at all utilized.

That methane may be utilized by bacteria as a source of energy was first shown by Söhngen in 1905. He isolated an organism named by him *B. methanicus* that showed itself capable of growing in inorganic solutions confined over an atmosphere of methane, oxygen and nitrogen. The methane gradually disappeared and there were formed considerable quantities of organic matter. The ability to oxidize methane has been claimed for a number of other organisms by Söhngen and others.

Early observations on the ability of moist soil to cause the oxidation of hydrogen are credited to de Saussure (1838). Many years later (1892) Immendorff called attention to the same fact. It was not, however, until 1905 that the oxidation of hydrogen was shown to be a specific biological process. In that year papers by Söhngen and Kaserer reported experiments wherein inorganic solutions confined under an atmosphere of hydrogen, oxygen and carbon dioxide and inoculated with very small quantities of soil developed a bacterial membrane at the surface. The hydrogen was oxidized and organic matter produced at the expense of the energy set free. The observations just noted have been confirmed by other investigators, by means of mixtures and single species of soil bacteria. Finally it should be added here that *B. oligocarbophilus* previously isolated by Beyerinck and van Delden is able, according to Kaserer, to oxidize also carbon monoxide.

THE CLEAVAGE AND FERMENTATION OF SUGARS, STARCHES AND GUMS.—Sugars are a very acceptable source of food and energy for soil bacteria. A culture solution containing suitable mineral salts and sugar ferments readily when inoculated with a small amount of fresh soil. When no combined nitrogen is added, *Azotobacter*, or *B.* (*Clostridium*)

pasteurianus (or both), may come to the fore. The cleavage products then include alcohols, organic acids and carbon dioxide. With *B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus* butyric acid is one of the prominent cleavage products. When combined nitrogen is also added to the culture solution other organisms will develop prominently, notably members of the subtilis group, butyric bacteria, aerogenes, etc. In the soil itself the addition of sugar leads to a very marked increase in number and, if acid production is favored, molds may subsequently become prominent. In general it may be said that butyric, propionic, acetic, formic and lactic acid, and ethyl, propyl, butyl and iso-butyl alcohol are common cleavage products.

In the case of starch, pectins and pentosans, similar conditions hold good. Diastatic enzymes seem to be produced by various bacteria, as well, as molds and streptothrices. Members of the subtilis group and *B. fluorescens* seem to be able to transform starch into sugar without difficulty. It needs hardly be added here that the vast quantities of organic acids and of carbon dioxide thus formed must play an important rôle in the breaking down of the mineral constituents in the soil.

Fats and Waxes.

Origin and Decomposition.—Plant substances contain varying proportions of fats and waxy materials. In the dry matter of grasses and cereal straw crude fat is usually present to the extent of 1.5 to 2.0 per cent. In hay made from clover and other legumes the proportion of crude fat is rather more than 2 per cent. In cereal grains it may range up to 4 or 5 per cent while in soy beans the content of crude fat is 19 per cent, in germ oil meal 22 per cent and flax seed meal 34 per cent.

Under the influence of enzymes produced by molds, yeasts and bacteria the fatty acids occurring as glycerides are decomposed into glycerin and fatty acids. The extent of fat decomposition, brought about largely by molds in the opinion of some, is shown by numerous experiments with peanut cake, olive press cake, cottonseed meal, almond oil, corn meal, etc. In a number of these experiments *Aspergillus niger* seemed to be particularly efficient in decomposing fats. Analogous decomposition processes may occur in the soil as proved by the experiments of Rubner.

Organic Acids.

Source.—The cleavage products of proteins include large quantities of amino-acids. The latter are still further transformed and yield a variety of fatty acids. The carbohydrates being present in larger quantities then the proteins are still more important as a source of organic acids. Finally, the fats, gums, and higher alcohols contribute additional quantities of the latter. Among the more simple acids, acetic, propionic, butyric, oxalic, succinic and lactic are common. The extent of acid production was already indicated in connection with cellulose decomposition by the methane and hydrogen bacilli. Apart from these organisms, organic acids are formed by nearly every important species of soil bacteria; moreover, the tissues of dead plants and animals are not the sole source of organic acids in the soil. According to Stoklasa conditions may occasionally occur in the latter, especially when atmospheric oxygen is excluded, that favor the excretion by plant roots of appreciable quantities of acetic acid.

Transformation and Accumulation.—Salts of organic acids are suitable as food for a wide range of soil bacteria. *Azotobacter* will readily make use of acetates, propionates and butyrates. A number of denitrifying bacteria will grow vigorously with citrates as the only source of organic nutrients. The fermentation of lactates by butyric bacteria has been known for a long time. The decomposition of malates, succinates, tartrates and valerates may be accomplished by various species, and even simple compounds like formates may yield food and energy to certain soil bacteria, among them *B. methylicus* studied by Loew and his associates. It is evident, therefore, that organic acids are not liable to accumulate in well ventilated soils. Molds, as well as bacteria, destroy them rapidly, and carbonates, carbon dioxide and water are the final products of the decomposition of non-nitrogenous organic matter.

Notwithstanding the ready decomposition of the more simple organic acids in the soil, it is well known that arable soils are frequently acid. This acidity is largely due to the so-called "humic acids," organic compounds whose composition is not well understood. They are composed, to some extent, of rather complex organic acids or of their acid salts. Continued cultivation seems to favor the accumulation of these acid compounds, partly on account of the diminished supply of lime and of other basic materials in older soils. When these soils are limed the

humic acids and acid humates are changed into neutral compounds and are then subject to more rapid decomposition by microörganisms. According to the investigations of Blair the average acid soil in Florida requires 1,500 pounds of lime (CaO) per acre to neutralize the acidity to a depth of 84 mm. (9 in.). This means an acidity equivalent to more than one ton of hydrochloric acid per acre. In peat and muck soils the acidity is equivalent to many times this amount of hydrochloric acid.

Protein Bodies.

Amount and Quality.—The protein content of farm crops that leave residues in the soil is variable, but in all cases quite considerable. Dried corn stalks contain 5 per cent of protein, timothy hay 6 per cent, red clover hay 12 per cent or more, alfalfa hay 15 or 16 per cent. Even wheat and rye straw may contain as much as 3 per cent of protein. Cotton seed meal and other oil cakes, tankage, ground fish, hair and wool waste and dried blood (all used more or less extensively as sources of nitrogen to crops) are made up in a large measure of protein compounds.

Being derived from plant residues, from microörganic, insect and animal remains, and from fertilizers and manures applied, the nitrogen in the soil humus exists, for the most part, in the form of protein compounds. Hilgard reports the following humus and nitrogen content, as based on the analyses of a large number of samples of humid, semi-arid and arid soils:

	(Humus) per cent	(Nitrogen in humus) per cent	(Nitrogen in soil) per cent
Arid uplands	0.91	15.23	0.135
Sub-irrigated arid soils	1.06	8.38	0.099
Humid soils from humid and arid regions (California)	2.45	5.29	0.135
Humid soils from other states	7.01	3.78	0.295

Taking the weight of an acre-foot of dry soil at 2,000,000 kg. (4,000,000 pounds) and multiplying the nitrogen by 6.25 (the factor usually employed for converting nitrogen into protein) we find the protein content of these soils to range from about 11,339 kg. (25,000 pounds)

per acre to nearly three times as much. Similarly, the Illinois Experiment Station reports quantities of nitrogen equivalent to 3,175 to 4,989 kg. (7,000 to 11,000 pounds) per acre to a depth of 101.6 cm. (40 in.) in gray silt loams, of the lower Illinoisan glaciation. In the brown silt loams the amount of nitrogen to the same depth is usually more than 4,535 kg. (10,000 pounds) per acre; occasionally it is more than 9,071 kg. (20,000 pounds) per acre. In one instance a black clay loam of the late Wisconsin glaciation is reported to have about 13,154 kg. (29,000 pounds) of nitrogen per acre, to a depth of 101.6 cm. (40 in.). This would be equivalent to more than 81,646. kg. (180,000 pounds) of protein; of course, not all of the nitrogen in the soil exists in the form of protein, some of it occurring as amino-compounds, and a small portion as ammonia and nitrates. Nevertheless, by far the greatest part of it occurs as protein compounds.

The protein compounds of the soil humus must be considered from the standpoint of quality as well as from the standpoint of quantity. It is well known that fresh plant residues are attacked more readily by microörganisms than older plant substances. For this reason soils frequently supplied with fresh organic material supply greater amounts of available food to crops than similar soils whose organic matter consists, largely of older residues.

Carbon-nitrogen Ratio.—The decomposition of organic matter is readily influenced by the relative content of nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous compounds. Substances of animal origin yield relatively and absolutely more available nitrogen in a given length of time than substances of plant origin. The difference noted is due largely to the greater proportion of protein in the animal materials; in other words, to the narrower carbon-nitrogen ratio. On this basis Hilgard attempts to explain the adequacy of the small proportion of humus in arid and semi-arid soils. Because of the narrower carbon-nitrogen ratio the humus compounds in these soils are decomposed with greater rapidity and yield a sufficient amount of ammonia and nitrate to supply the needs of the crop.

But when plant substances alone are considered the statement just made requires qualification. It is true that cotton-seed meal or linseed meal, having a narrower carbon-nitrogen ratio, will decay more readily than corn-meal or wheat flour. It is also true that any given plant substance; as it undergoes decay, will lose in proportion more carbon than

nitrogen. Older humus has, therefore, a narrower carbon-nitrogen ratio than humus of recent origin. It is likewise more resistant to decay than new humus. Hence under any given climatic conditions and in any given soil type, the carbon-nitrogen ratio may give important indications as to the availability of the humus nitrogen. Lawes and Gilbert, as quoted by Hall, found the following carbon-nitrogen ratio in the organic matter of different soils:

Cereal Roots and stubble	43
Leguminous stubble	23
Dung	18
Very old grass land	13.7
Manitoba prairie soils	13
Pasture recently laid down	11.7
Arable soil	10.1
Clay subsoil	6

Hall concludes, therefore, that humus with a wide carbon-nitrogen ratio is more valuable than humus with a narrow carbon-nitrogen ratio, since it will be attacked more easily by the soil bacteria.

The Transformation of Nitrogen Compounds.

Ammonification.—*Experimental Study.*—By ammonification is meant the production of ammonia by bacteria out of protein substances or their cleavage products. That ammonia production in the soil is a biological process was first demonstrated by Müntz and Coudon in 1893. These investigators showed that no ammonia is formed in sterile soils. They also showed that ammonia may be produced out of nitrogenous organic matter by molds as well as by bacteria. Marchal not only confirmed these observations, but proved that various microörganisms differ markedly in their ability to produce ammonia. Of the several species of bacteria tested by him, *B. mycoides* (one of the common soil bacteria) proved itself particularly efficient in the breaking down of nitrogenous materials and the prodution of ammonia.

Since the publication of these experiments a large number of investigators, both in Europe and America, have studied ammonia production in culture solutions as well as in the soil itself. It has been shown that under favorable conditions the breaking down of protein compounds and the formation of ammonia may be very rapid; for instance, in some experiments carried out by Lipman and his associates the following

proportions of nitrogen were transformed into ammonia in the course of six days:

Dried blood	16.74 per cent.
Concentrated tankage	56.66 per cent.
Ground fish	47.16 per cent.
Cottonseed meal	4.95 per cent.
Bone meal	16.65 per cent.
Cow manure, solid and liquid excreta	32.60 per cent.
Cow manure, solid excreta	5.39 per cent.

The experiments were carried out in equal quantities of soil and with equivalent quantities of nitrogen in the different substances. It will be observed that more than 56 per cent of the nitrogen in the concentrated tankage was transformed into ammonia, whereas under the same conditions cotton-seed meal yielded less than 5 per cent.

Mechanism of Ammonia Production.—The relatively large protein molecules are readily broken into larger or smaller fragments. This may be accomplished by purely chemical means, as, for instance, by boiling with acids or alkalies, or by biological activities. Among the first cleavage products albumoses and peptones are quite prominent. These in turn undergo further cleavage and the various amino-acids and their derivatives, as well as ammonia, make their appearance. In so far as the different species of bacteria are concerned, ammonia production seems to depend, to a marked extent, on the ability to secrete proteolytic enzymes. With the aid of such enzymes the proteins are more readily hydrolyzed and further changed into amino- and hydroxy acids and ammonia and carbon dioxide.

Influence of Soil and Climatic Conditions.—Ammonia production in the soil is affected by (a) its mechanical and chemical composition; by (b) the amount and distribution of rainfall; by (c) the prevailing temperatures; by (d) fertilizer treatment; and by (e) methods of tillage and cropping. The mechanical composition of the soil influences the proportion of aerobic and anaerobic species, while the chemical composition, particularly that of the humus, influences the rate of multiplication and the character of the chemical transformation accomplished. It is well known, for example, that additions of fresh organic matter intensify the rate of decomposition of the soil humus, and, likewise, ammonia production as was already demonstrated by Breal. In a more general way it was proved by Lipman and his associates that, with a constant bacterial factor,

ammonia production in soils varies with the chemical and mechanical composition of the latter. In some of these experiments 100 g. portions of different soils were each mixed with 5 g. of dried blood, sterilized in the autoclave, cooled and inoculated with equal quantities of infusion from fresh soil. The following amounts of ammonia nitrogen were produced in six days:

Soil	Ammonia nitrogen found
A	31.62 mg.
B	68.29 mg.
C	117.06 mg.
D	107.16 mg.
E	156.47 mg.

With all other factors constant, chemical and mechanical differences in the soil used were responsible for striking variations in ammonia production, as indicated by the figures given above.

The influence of temperature and moisture conditions is fully as important as that of the chemical and mechanical composition of the soil. The following data secured by Lipman may be cited in this connection as showing the effect of moisture:

One-hundred-gram quantities of air-dry soil were each mixed with 3 g. of dried blood and varying amounts of water added. The ammonia formed was distilled off and determined at the end of eight days. The amounts of ammonia nitrogen found were as follows:

Water added	Ammonia nitrogen found
0 c.c	4.13 mg.
1 c.c	4.13 mg.
3 c.c	5.40 mg.
5 c.c	10.64 mg.
7 c.c	26.37 mg.
10 c.c	49.57 mg.
12 c.c	70.71 mg.
15 c.c	93.90 mg.

It appears, therefore, that ammonia production in soils rises or falls as the rainfall or irrigation is increased or decreased, or as the soil water is more or less thoroughly conserved by proper methods of tillage. In the same way, seasons of high temperature favor ammonification while seasons of low temperatures discourage it. This point is well illustrated by the observations of Marchal that at 0° to 5° only traces of ammonia were formed in his culture solutions; that at 20° ammonia production was quite marked, and that at 30° the maximum was reached. Moreover, apart from the seasonal variations in any one locality, there is a wide range in ammonia production, as we pass from the torrid to the temperate and from the latter to the frigid zones.

Species and Numbers.—Ammonia production is a function common to most soil bacteria. Already in the earlier experiments of Marchal, 17 out of the 31 species tested were found capable of producing ammonia. Prominent among these ammonifiers were *B. mycoides*, *B.* (*Proteus*) *vulgaris*, *B. mesentericus vulgatus*, *B. janthinus*, and *B. subtilis*. Of a considerable number of soil bacteria tested by Chester all but one were observed to produce ammonia. In Gage's experiments with sewage bacteria, 17 out of 20 species tested proved to be ammonifiers. Similarly, a number of species tested by the writer, among them *B. coli*, *B. cholerae suis*, *B.* (*Proteus*) *vulgaris*, *B. subtilis*, *B. megaterium*, etc., all produced ammonia in meat infusions. A mass of additional data, accumulated by different investigators, furnish further proof that ammonia production is a common function of soil bacteria.

The more prominent ammonifiers, including members of the *B. subtilis* group and certain *Streptothrices*, are numerically important in all arable soils. Their numbers are affected, however, by the amount and composition of the soil humus. It has been found, for instance, that additions of straw and of strawy manure increase markedly the numbers of *B. subtilis* and of other members of the group. An increase in the numbers of certain ammonifiers is caused also by additions of lime or of green manure. For example, in experiments carried out by Lipman and his associates portions of fertile soil inoculated with *B. mycoides* were found to contain, a month later, 2,000,000 of bacteria per g. of soil. In similar soil portions that had also received additions of grass the number was twice as great.

Relative Efficiency of Different Species.—In Marchal's experiments already referred to, the species employed showed marked differences in their

ability to produce ammonia out of egg albumen. The following proportions of the protein nitrogen were converted into ammonia in twenty days:

B. mycoides	46 per cent.	*B. subtilis*	23 per cent.
B. (Proteus) vulgaris	36 per cent.	*B. janthinus*	23 per cent.
B. mesentericus vulgatus	29 per cent.	*B. fluorescens putidus*	22 per cent.
Sarcina lutea	27 per cent.	*B. fluorescens liquefaciens*	16 per cent.

Furthermore, apart from the variations from species to species, differences have been observed by Marchal and many other investigators between one strain and another of any single species isolated from the same or different soils. It must be remembered, therefore, that in the study of ammonification in soils and culture solutions, due consideration should be given to differences in *physiological efficiency* as they are manifested by strains and species of microörganisms.

Apart from the ammonifying bacteria already mentioned there is a group of organisms studied by Müller, Pasteur, van Tieghem, Leube, Miquel, Beyerinck and others. These are the so-called urea bacteria, capable of intensive transformation of urea and allied compounds into ammonium carbonate, by means of the enzyme urease.

$$\begin{array}{l} NH_2 \\ | \\ CO + 2H_2O = (NH_4)_2CO_3 \\ | \\ NH_2 \end{array}$$

Morphologically these organisms include spherical and rod forms, spore-bearing and non-spore bearing species. Most of the urea bacteria are particularly prominent in the transformation of animal manures.

NITRIFICATION.—*Experimental Study.*—The term nitrification refers to the oxidation either of ammonia or of nitrites to nitrates. In a broader sense nitrification may be defined as the production of nitrates from decomposing organic matter. Saltpeter or niter, the terms formerly applied to potassium nitrate, possessed, for a long time, a peculiar interest because of its relation to gunpowder. Whether it be true or not that gunpowder was known to the Chinese before the beginning of the present era, there is no doubt that for several centuries it played an important part in the political and economic history of Europe. The large quantities of gunpowder consumed in the almost incessant wars created a steady demand for saltpeter that was not readily met by the saltpeter refiners of India, Hungary and Poland. European nations, particularly France,

were therefore thrown on their own resources and were forced to develop the domestic production of saltpeter. The industry came under government control and experts were appointed to study the so-called saltpeter plantations and the conditions affecting the appearance and increase of nitrates in compost heaps and in the soil. Much knowledge was thus gained about nitrification even though it was not suspected that living organisms were concerned in the process.

With the rapid development of chemistry in the latter half of the eighteenth century a nearer approach was made to the understanding of the true character of nitrification. The observations of Cavendish in 1784 that potassium nitrate is formed when electric sparks are passed through air confined over a solution of potassium hydrate formed the starting-point for various theories that attempted to account for nitrate formation on the basis of purely chemical reactions. The formation of nitric acid and of its salts was thus assumed to be due to electric discharges in the atmosphere, to combustion processes in nature, or to the oxidation of organic matter and of calcium, magnesium iron and manganese compounds in the soil. Much credence was given to the latter explanation because of the almost universal occurrence of nitrates in arable soils.

The first indication that nitrate production in the soil and in decaying organic matter is due to biological activities was first given by Pasteur in 1862. A few years later Müller expressed his belief in the biological origin of nitrates and nitrites in sewage and drinking water. It was not, however, until 1877 that the true character of nitrification was made clear. In that year Schloesing and Müntz demonstrated that dilute solutions of ammonia could be changed into nitrate by being passed slowly through long tubes filled with soil. The amounts of nitrate nitrogen found in the leachings corresponded almost exactly to the amount of ammonia nitrogen used up. When the soil in the tubes was first sterilized by heating or by means of chloroform and other germicides, the ammonia passed through unchanged. But when soils sterilized by heat or chloroform were reinfected with small quantities of fresh soils nitrification again proceeded in a normal manner.

The biological nature of nitrification having been thus established numerous investigators tried to isolate the specific organisms in pure culture. A large amount of work in this direction was done by Schloesing and Müntz, Celli and Marino-Zuco, Munro, Warington, the Franklands

and many others. A large number of bacteria, yeasts and molds were tested with negative results. Warington, who gathered a great mass of valuable information about nitrification, almost succeeded in securing pure cultures of nitrifying bacteria. Finally, Winogradski showed in 1890 not only that nitrification is caused by specific bacteria, but explained also why the others failed in securing pure cultures. He proved that these organisms do not develop colonies on the ordinary gelatin and other organic media, a fact whose recognition was largely responsible for his successful solution of the problem. The medium subsequently employed by him consisted of silicate jelly properly supplied with inorganic nutrient salts. After him other investigators proved that agar, deprived of its soluble organic matter, gypsum and sandstone disks, filter-paper pads, etc., could be used effectively as solid media.

Nitrous and Nitric Bacteria.—Winogradski's investigations led to the conclusion, foreshadowed by the earlier work of the Franklands and Warington, that the oxidation of ammonia proceeds in two stages, viz.,

$$(1)\ 2NH_3+3O_2=2HNO_2+2H_2O$$
$$(2)\ 2HNO_2+O_2=2HNO_3$$

The organisms oxidizing ammonia to nitrites, and designated as nitrous or nitrite bacteria, were called by Winogradski *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrosococcus*. The former include species or varieties isolated from soils in Europe, Asia and Africa, and the latter those isolated from soils in America and Australia. The organisms oxidizing nitrites to nitrates and known as nitric or nitrate bacteria, were included by Winogradski in the genus *Nitrobacter*.

Apart from these bacteria there is an organism, according to Kaserer, that can oxidize ammonia directly to nitrate. He named it *B. nitrator*. The reaction is illustrated by the following equation:

$$NH_3+H_2CO_3+O_2=HNO_3+H_2O+CH_2O-41\ \text{Cal.}$$
$$CH_2O+O_2=H_2CO_3+132\ \text{Cal.}$$

Enough energy for the completion of the reaction is obtained by the oxidation of the formaldehyde (CH_2O). Beyond the preliminary announcement of Kaserer's there are no experimental data to prove the existence of this organism, even though other evidence of an indirect nature may be construed to lend support to his theory. But whether it be proved or not that ammonia may be oxidized to nitrate by a single species,

it is evident that the number of species concerned in nitrate production is relatively small.

Relation to Environment.—The conditions that affect nitrate formation in soils may be classified under the following heads: (a) supply of oxygen; (b) range of prevailing temperatures; (c) amount and distribution of moisture; (d) quantity of lime and of other basic materials; (e) quantity of soluble mineral salts; (f) character and amount of organic matter; (g) presence of toxic substances; (h) physiological efficiency of the nitrifying bacteria.

The rapid disappearance of organic matter from sandy soils is due in large measure to their better aeration. On the other hand, the decomposition of vegetable and animal substances in heavy, ill-ventilated soils is materially retarded by the limited supply and very gradual renewal of oxygen. An intimate relation exists here between air and water in that the latter replaces the former to a more marked extent in heavy than in light soils. The influence of both aeration and the range of moisture is illustrated by an experiment of Lipman's in which equal quantities of soil were kept in large boxes under different moisture conditions. At the end of a year the following quantities of nitrate nitrogen were found:

Moisture content	6.52 per cent	14.75 per cent	18.62 per cent	22.05 per cent	22.12 per cent
Nitrate nitrogen found	697 mg.	823 mg.	720 mg.	Trace	Trace

In examining the figures recorded above, we find that moisture was the controlling factor in the development of the nitrifying bacteria, when the proportion of water in the soil was 6.52 per cent. As the amount of water increased to 14.75 per cent there was a marked increase in the amount of nitrate produced. Beyond that, however, the further increase in the amount of water began to limit the supply of oxygen, and the production of nitrate nitrogen with 18.62 per cent of water in the soil was somewhat decreased. A still further addition of water up to 22.05 per cent led, practically, to saturation, and the encouragement of reduction rather than oxidation processes. Hence, no nitrate was allowed to accumulate in the soil. The data in question thus help to explain why care was taken, on saltpeter plantations, to keep the compost heaps moist, yet not too wet.

The influence of temperature on nitrate formation has been observed by many investigators. Already Schloesing and Müntz recorded that at 5° nitrification is quite feeble, at 12° marked and at 37° at its best. Other investigators have obtained substantially the same results, except that the optimum has been found to be considerably lower, often between 25° and 30°. Under field conditions nitrification seems to take place at relatively low temperatures, as is indicated by the rapid oxidation of ammonium salts in the Rothamsted experiments in England; and the rapid decay and nitrification of clover and of other legume residues in the experiments at the New Jersey Experiment Station. These facts have, therefore, an important bearing on the nitrogen feeding of crops in tropical, subtropical and temperate zones.

The influence of lime and of other basic substances including the carbonates of magnesium, potassium and sodium, and of the oxides of iron is of far-reaching importance in all nitrification processes. It is well known that applications of magnesian and non-magnesian lime, marl or wood ashes promote nitrification in the soil and in compost heaps, a fact that was well recognized by the ancient niter refiners. The favorable action of lime is readily explained by its ability to neutralize organic and mineral acids and to render, thereby, the soil reaction favorable for the rapid growth of ammonifying, as well as of nitrifying bacteria. Furthermore, the reserve of basic material serves to neutralize the acid formed by the bacteria and prevents thus the accumulation of an undue amount of acidity.

The rôle of certain mineral salts in promoting nitrification is quite significant. Small amounts of sodium chloride have been found to favor nitrification in the experiments of Pichard and also those of Lipman. The former showed also that sulphates not only promote nitrification, but that different sulphates display marked variations in this respect. In the same manner nitrate formation was shown to be favorably affected by phosphates in bone meal, Thomas slag, and acid phosphates. Generally speaking, therefore, nitrifying bacteria are stimulated in their development by a proper supply of available mineral nutrients.

The exact relation of organic matter in the soil to the activities of nitrifying bacteria is but beginning to be properly understood. Earlier observations made it manifest that heavy applications of animal manures, or of green manure may not only retard nitrification, but may actually cause the disappearance of a part or of all of the nitrate in the soil. Sub-

sequent experiments by Winogradski and by Winogradski and Omelianski showed that in pure cultures the presence of even slight amounts of soluble organic matter may depress or even suppress the development of the nitrifying bacteria. It was, therefore, concluded by these authors that relatively small amounts of soluble organic matter may inhibit nitrification. These conclusions, based on the study of liquid cultures only, were given a very broad application by many writers on agricultural topics. More recent experiments make it certain, however, that in the soil itself small amounts of soluble organic matter, *e.g.*, dextrose, are not only harmless, but may really stimulate nitrification. It was shown, likewise, that humus and extracts of humus may, under suitable conditions, stimulate nitrification to a very striking extent.

Certain substances in the soil may exert a toxic effect on nitrifying bacteria. Ferrous sulphate, sulphites and sulphides may thus act injuriously, as may also calcium chloride and excessive concentrations of sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate, sodium chloride, magnesium sulphate, etc. Injury by ferrous compounds, as well as by organic acids, is not uncommon in low-lying fields and bogs; while injury from excessive concentration of soluble salts may occur in the so-called alkali lands.

Finally nitrification in the soil should be considered from the standpoint of the organisms themselves. There is no doubt that continued growth under extremely favorable conditions leads to the development in the soil of nitrifying bacteria, possessing a very marked physiological efficiency. On the other hand, in ill-aerated, sour soils the environment would depress the physiological efficiency of the nitrifying bacteria. Differences are thus undoubtedly established under actual field conditions, as is made probable by the variable behavior of soils from different sources when used as inoculating material in recently reclaimed or peat swamp lands.

Accumulation and Disappearance of Nitrates.—As shown above, the rate of formation of nitrates in the soil is dependent upon moisture, temperature and aeration, as well as on the presence of organic matter and basic substances. On the other hand, the accumulation of nitrates depends, under any given conditions, largely on the character of the growing crop. Observations on the rain gauges at Rothamsted showed an average annual loss 14 kg. (31.4 pounds) of nitric nitrogen per acre in the drainage water from uncropped soil. In one of King's experiments, land that had been fallowed contained 137 kg. (303.24 pounds) of nitric nitrogen per acre, to a depth of four feet. Adjoining cropped

land contained only 26 kg. (57.56 pounds) of nitric nitrogen per acre to the same depth. Stewart and Greaves found in limestone soil in Utah 64 kg. (142 pounds) of nitric nitrogen per acre, under corn; 98 pounds under potatoes, and only 12 kg. (27 pounds) under alfalfa. Under the same conditions fallow land contained 74 kg. (165 pounds) of nitric nitrogen per acre. The smaller amount of nitric nitrogen found under alfalfa bears out the observations already made by a number of other investigators that the accumulation of nitrates under legumes is smaller than it is under non-legumes. While several explanations have been offered to account for this fact, it is generally agreed that legumes assimilate nitrate nitrogen more rapidly than non-legumes. Unusual circumstances may favor, at times, the accumulation of quantities of nitrate large enough to destroy all vegetation. It is reported, for instance, by Headden that he has found in limited areas in Colorado as much as 9,0718.5 kg. (100 tons) of nitrate per acre foot of soil.

The amount of nitrate nitrogen in the soil is influenced by the growing crop not alone because of the nitrogen absorbed by the latter, but because of the moisture relations as affected by growing plants. It is quite apparent that a large crop dries out the soil more rapidly than a small crop. When the soil moisture is sufficiently depleted, nitrification stops and the further accumulation of nitrates becomes impossible, while their disappearance is hastened by the constant demands of the crop. The disappearance of soil nitrates is, likewise, hastened by the leaching action of rain and by certain species of bacteria that transform them into other nitrogen compounds.

DENITRIFICATION. *Experimental Study.*—Denitrification may be defined as the reduction of nitrates by bacteria, involving the evolution of nitrogen gas or of nitrogen oxides. In a more general way, denitrification has been defined as the partial or complete reduction of nitrates by bacteria. The term direct denitrification has been suggested for complete reduction, and indirect for the partial reduction to nitrites or ammonia. The term denitrification should not be employed to designate losses of nitrogen gas due to the oxidation of ammonia, or to the disappearance of nitrates following their conversion into proteins by microörganisms.

The reduction of nitrates in the presence of fermenting organic matter was noted by Kuhlmann as early as 1846. The same fact was recorded many years later by Froehde and by Angus Smith. In 1868 Schoenbein expressed the belief that nitrates may be reduced to nitrites by fungi.

For more than a decade after that, data were rapidly accumulating in support of Schoenbein's contention, until in 1882 Gayon and Dupetit made it certain that nitrate reduction with the evolution of nitrogen gas may be caused by a "ferment." Finally, in 1886, the same investigators described two organisms, *B. denitrificans α.*, and *B. denitrificans β.*, capable of completely reducing nitrates. Subsequently the studies of Giltay and Aberson, Burri and Stutzer, Severin, van Iterson, Jensen, Beyerinck and of many others not only greatly increased the number of known denitrifying bacteria, but added much to our knowledge concerning the development and activities of these organisms. It has been shown that a very large number of species can reduce nitrates to nitrites and ammonia; moreover, a considerable number of organisms are already known that can cause the complete destruction of nitrates with the evolution of nitrogen gas or of nitrogen oxides. The following reactions illustrate diagrammatically the complete or partial reduction of nitrates.

$$2HNO_3 = 2HNO_2 + O_2$$
$$HNO_3 + H_2O = NH_3 + 2O_2$$
$$4HNO_2 = 2H_2O + 2N_2 + 3O_2$$

In the soil, manure or other culture media the denitrifying bacteria which are, for the most part, aerobic develop also under anaerobic conditions and transfer the oxygen of nitrates and nitrites to carbon compounds. This is illustrated by the equations suggested by van Iterson:

$$5C + 4KNO_3 + 2H_2O = 4KHCO_3 + 2N_2 + CO_2$$
$$3C + 4KNO_2 + H_2O = 2KHCO_3 + K_2CO_3 + 2N_2$$

When nitrates are reduced to nitrites in the presence of amino-compounds, or even of ammonium compounds, elementary nitrogen may escape as shown by the following reactions:

$$C_2H_5NH_2 + HNO_2 = C_2H_5OH + N_2 + H_2O$$
$$NH_4Cl + KNO_2 = KCl + 2H_2O + N_2$$

An organism has been described by van Iterson that can decompose nitrates in the presence of cellulose:

$$5C_6H_{10}O_5 + 24KNO_3 = 24KHCO_3 + 6CO_2 + 12N_2 + 13H_2O$$

Still more interesting is *Thiobacillus denitrificans* described by Beyerinck as capable of reducing nitrates in inorganic media. The nitrate oxygen is used to oxidize elementary sulphur:

$$6\,KNO_3 + 5S + 2CaCO_3 = 3\,K_2SO_4 + 2CaSO_4 + 2CO_2 + 3N_2$$

Relation to Environment.—Nitrate reduction is favored by insufficient aeration, as well as by an abundance of readily decomposable organic matter. In fine grained, compact soils nitrate formation and nitrate reduction may alternate, depending upon the more or less complete replacement of soil air by water. Similarly, in soils receiving excessive amounts of animal manure denitrifying bacteria may cause the reduction of nitrates. In green-house soils excessive moisture, as well as excessive amounts of organic matter, may be present and may prevent the accumulation of nitrates. It has also been shown by Niklevski that, contrary to opinions previously held, denitrification may occur in manure heaps. In the better aerated surface portion of manure heaps conditions are favorable for the oxidation of ammonia to nitrites and nitrates. The nitrous acid may combine with ammonia to form ammonium nitrite, the latter decomposing, spontaneously, into water and nitrogen gas. It is very likely, also, that the nitrites and nitrates are reduced by the denitrifying bacteria in manure. On the other hand, in manure kept moist under the feet of cattle nitrite and nitrate formation is prevented and losses by denitrification are not likely to occur.

The economic significance of denitrification was overestimated at one time, on account, largely, of the assertion of Wagner in 1895 that in all soils receiving applications of horse manure, the nitrates in the soil itself as well as those added in commercial fertilizers are almost certain to be destroyed by denitrification. Subsequent experiments by many investigators demonstrated that under field conditions, denitrification is a factor of slight moment; however, in the green-house, in the manure heap (under certain conditions) and in market gardening where manure is used at the rate of 45,359 kg. to 54,431 kg. (50 to 60 tons) per acre, the danger of denitrification is real.

Analytical and Synthetical Reactions.

Amount of Bacterial Substance in the Soil.—Various decomposition processes in the organic matter of the soil may be designated as analytical in that prôtein, carbohydrates and fats are split into more simple compounds. At the same time, the microörganisms concerned in the decomposition processes multiply very rapidly and fashion the complex compounds of their cell-substance out of the simple cleavage products in their medium. In other words, analytical and synthetical reactions proceed hand in hand in the soil.

While it is not definitely known how large a proportion of the soil humus consists of the dead and living cells of microörganisms there is a mass of indirect evidence to show that these cells form a very considerable proportion of the total quantity of organic substances in the soil. For instance, it has been demonstrated that a large proportion of the dry matter of solid animal fæces may consist of bacterial cells. At various times and by different investigators the proportion of bacterial substance has been estimated at from 5 to 20 per cent or more of the total dry weight of fæces. A heavy application of barnyard manure may introduce, therefore, several hundred pounds of bacterial cells per acre of soil. Moreover, because of the extensive changes in the soil humus itself, as is evidenced by the rapid formation of nitrates, large masses of bacterial substance are constantly being formed and disintegrated.

Availability of Bacterial Matter.—Substances of microörganic origin are decomposed more or less rapidly, according to their composition. The extent of transformation under favorable conditions is indicated by an experiment performed by Beyerinck and van Delden, in which 50 per cent of the nitrogen in *Azotobacter* cells was transformed into nitrate in seven weeks. On the other hand, the humus of peat and muck soils, or that of worn-out soils, may contain microörganic residues of so inert a character as to yield but little available nitrogen to crops.

Transformation of Peptone, Ammonia and Nitrate Nitrogen.—The cleavage of protein compounds into peptones, amino-acids and ammonia, and the oxidation of the latter into nitrites and nitrates, may be properly included among analytical reactions. It should not be forgotten, however, that in the accompanying synthetical reactions the compounds just mentioned may be transformed back into complex proteins. It happens, thus, that large quantities of the available nitrogen compounds may be withdrawn from circulation by microörganisms that use these as building material. Under extreme conditions microörganisms may become serious competitors of higher plants for available nitrogen food.

Manure stored in heaps not infrequently deteriorates in quality, even when losses by leaching are excluded This deterioration is largely due to the change of the water-soluble ammonia and amino-compounds into insoluble protein substances. While the extent of the change into protein compounds is variable it may range from less than a tenth of the

water soluble material to more than three-quarters or four-fifths of it. Also in the soil the same processes take place, but not as intensively. A large number of species of molds and bacteria have been isolated and tested as to their ability to transform ammonia, amino- and nitrate nitrogen into protein compounds. Among the more recent investigations in this field those of Lemmermann and his associates report the change in three weeks of 5 to 6 per cent of the nitrate added to the soil into protein. In the presence of barnyard manure the proportion transformed was increased to 15 per cent. In the case of ammonium compounds the transformation may be even more far-reaching, amounting, at times, to more than 25 to 30 per cent of the material originally present. Generally speaking, molds will assimilate ammonia nitrogen more readily while bacteria and algæ will assimilate nitrate nitrogen by preference. However, the preference of molds for ammonia nitrogen is often more apparent than real, because of the rapid formation of acid residues in culture media rich in certain ammonium compounds. Similarly, some species of bacteria will assimilate ammonia nitrogen in preference to nitrate nitrogen.

CHAPTER III.

FIXATION OF ATMOSPHERIC NITROGEN.

The Source of Nitrogen in Soils.

Early Theories.—When chemistry had made sufficient progress to allow the analysis of soils and plants it was recognized that nitrogen is always present in both. It was also recognized that the soil nitrogen is almost wholly confined to the surface portion and is evidently of atmospheric origin, since the unweathered, underlying rock is devoid of this constituent. The vast accumulations of nitrogen, known to exist in all arable soils, were ascribed, therefore, to the residues of many generations of plants; and the assumption seemed to be justified that the atmosphere, 79 per cent of whose bulk consists of nitrogen gas, is the direct source of this element to plants. It was not long, however, before plant physiologists demonstrated experimentally that nitrogen gas as such could not directly serve as food for plants. There thus arose one of the most interesting and, for a long time, one of the most puzzling problems in agricultural research. Among the earlier investigators de Saussure believed, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, that nitrogen is taken up from the soil in combined form. Liebig in 1840 advanced his well-known "mineral theory" according to which plants secured their nitrogen from the air, in the form of ammonia. He assumed, thus, that plants cannot use elementary nitrogen, and that the supply of atmospheric nitrogen in the form of ammonia was great enough to meet the needs of growing vegetation. The latter view was not accepted by Lawes and Gilbert of the Rothamsted Station in England. By a series of elaborate and carefully controlled experiments they demonstrated in 1858 that nitrogen in the elementary form cannot be used by plants. They further demonstrated that the amount of combined nitrogen brought down in the form of ammonia, nitrites and nitrates, by atmospheric precipitation was but slight when compared with the quantities annually removed by crops. Hence the problem as to the source and maintenance of combined nitrogen in the soil seemed to be more puzzling than ever.

CHEMICAL AND BIOLOGICAL RELATIONS.—The second and third quarters of the nineteenth century saw the birth of a number of theories dealing with this problem. It was suggested that nitrogen compounds may be formed in the soil by the oxidation of nitrogen to nitric acid. Compounds of iron, manganese and lime were supposed in some way to make such oxidation changes possible. It was likewise suggested that nascent hydrogen may be generated in the decomposition of organic matter in the soil, and reacting with elementary nitrogen, may give rise to ammonia. The various hypotheses were not supported by experimental proof; moreover, the situation was complicated by the knowledge, based on empirical observations, that crops of the legume family seemed to be more or less independent of the supply of combined nitrogen in the soil. Indeed, clovers and other legumes had, apparently, the ability to increase the content of combined nitrogen in the soil as was indicated by the experiments of Boussingault and of Lawes and Gilbert. Finally, the mystery was solved by the investigations of Berthelot and of Hellriegel and Wilfarth who furnished the proof that elementary nitrogen may be utilized by plants when certain biological relations are met. These relations involve the presence and activities of microörganisms that by themselves, or in conjunction with higher plants, make available to growing vegetation the great store of atmospheric nitrogen.

NON-SYMBIOTIC FIXATION OF NITROGEN.

HISTORICAL.—Non-symbiotic nitrogen fixation, or *Azofication*, has already been defined as the production of nitrogen compounds out of atmospheric nitrogen by bacteria independently of higher plants. The part played by bacteria in this process was not recognized until 1885, when Berthelot published some of his data on the accumulation of combined nitrogen in uncropped soils. His results seemed to explain a number of scattered observations, made since the middle of the century, on the apparent increase of the nitrogen content of cultivated soils.

While Berthelot's experiments proved that the nitrogen gains occurred only in unsterilized soils and were, therefore, due to microörganisms, it remained for Winogradski to demonstrate, in 1893, that the formation of nitrogen compounds by certain types of bacteria may be accomplished in culture media nearly or quite devoid of combined nitrogen. Soon after that he succeeded in isolating his organisms in pure culture, and

described them as anaerobic bacilli allied to those of the butyric group. In 1901 our knowledge of *Azo-bacteria* was enriched by Beyerinck's discovery of a group of large, obligate aerobic bacteria that he designated as *Azotobacter*. Since that date it has been found that the ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen is possessed also by certain molds and by various species of bacteria. However, this ability is not only extremely variable, but is also very feeble as compared with that of the members of the two groups described by Winogradski and Beyerinck. These two groups may, therefore, be designated as including the nitrogen fixing bacteria par excellence.

ANAEROBIC SPECIES.—The species isolated by Winogradski was named by him *B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus* (Fig. 66). It was found to grow

FIG. 66.—*B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus*, a non-symbiotic nitrogen-fixing organism. (*After Winogradski from Lipman.*)

readily under anaerobic conditions in culture solutions containing dextrose and the necessary mineral salts, but no combined nitrogen. The products of growth included protein, butyric and acetic acids, carbon dioxide and hydrogen. In the presence of other bacteria *B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus* was found to develop also under aerobic conditions. Subsequently studies by Winogradski and other investigators showed that *B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus*, and varieties of this species are very widely distributed in cultivated soils. More recently Bredeman made a thorough and extended study of anaerobic *Azo-bacteria* and demonstrated their almost invariable presence in a large number of soil samples from Europe, Asia and America. In his opinion they correspond more or less closely to *B. amylobacter* described many years before by van Tieghem.

AEROBIC SPECIES.—A more or less pronounced power to fix atmospheric nitrogen is apparently possessed by a considerable number of aerobic species. Lipman has demonstrated the fixation of small amounts

of nitrogen by *Ps. pyocyanea* and Löhnis secured similar results with *Bact. pneumoniæ*, *B. lactis viscosum*, *B. radiobacter* and *B. prodigiosus*. Gottheil has detected fixation by *B. ruminatus* and *B. simplex;* Pillai has described a nitrogen fixing aerobic bacillus, *B. malabarensis;* Westermann studied a similar organism that he named *B. danicus*; while Beyerinck and van Delden observed, some years earlier, that certain strains of *B. mesentericus* could fix relatively large amounts of nitrogen. Similarly *Ps. radicicola* has been found to possess a slight, but nevertheless an appreciable power to fix elementary nitrogen in culture solutions or in the soil.

FIG. 67.—*Azotobacter vinelandi*, a non-symbiotic nitrogen-fixing organism. (*After Lipman.*)

But while nitrogen fixation among aerobic soil bacteria is not as uncommon as was at one time supposed, this function is so feeble and so variable in most instances, as to be of negative, or, at best, of doubtful economic significance. On the other hand, the aerobic *Azotobacter*, first described by Beyerinck in 1901, may be regarded not only as possessing a very pronounced ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen, but as playing a rôle of some moment in maintaining the supply of combined nitrogen in the soil.

To the two species of *Azotobacter*, *A. chroococcum* and *A. agilis* described by Beyerinck and van Delden, Lipman added *A. vinelandii*, (Fig. 67) *A. beyerincki* and *A. woodstownii*, and Löhnis and Westermann, *A. vitreum*.

Of these species *A. chroococcum* and *A. beyerincki* are most common and are widely distributed in cultivated soils of Europe and America, and probably also of the other continents. They are absent in acid soils deficient in humus, and most common in limestone regions and in irrigated soils rich in mineral salts. Their food requirements are covered by solutions containing potassium phosphate, magnesium sulphate, calcium chloride and ferric sulphate, and some organic nutrient, such as dextrose, saccharose, xylose, mannit, acetate, propionate, butyrate, malate, ethyl alcohol, etc. An alkaline or neutral reaction and the presence of salts of iron are essential for the vigorous development of *Azotobacter*, while humates have been shown by Krzemieniewski to exert a stimulating influence on the growth of these organisms, even though not acting directly as a source of food and energy. As shown by Lipman and others, *Azotobacter* may gain an increased power of fixing atmospheric nitrogen in the presence of other organisms. It is resistant to drying, notwithstanding the fact that it produces no spores, and has been successfully isolated from soil samples that had been kept in a dry state for several years. For some reason it may be detected in the soil most readily in the fall and winter months.

Energy Relations.—In the fixation of nitrogen by bacteria the necessary energy for the process is furnished by the carbohydrates, organic acids, alcohols or other organic nutrients employed in the culture media. Since any given quantity of organic nutrient possesses a definite amount of potential energy the fixation of nitrogen is necessarily limited by the supply of such potential energy. This limitation was already recognized by Winogradski in his experiments with *B.* (*Clostridium*) *pasteurianus*. For every gram of dextrose used up there was produced, on the average, 2 to 3 mg. of combined nitrogen. In the experiments of Bredeman with *B. amylobacter*, and of Pringsheim with "*Clostridium americanum*" the amounts fixed were, at times, considerably larger. On the whole, however, it has been proved by a number of investigators that *Azotobacter* can fix much larger quantities of nitrogen than the anaerobic bacilli. The extended investigations of Lipman showed that *A. vinelandii* has the ability to fix more nitrogen per unit of organic nutrient consumed than either *A. chroococcum* or *A. beyerincki*. Under favorable conditions *A. vinelandii* may at times fix 15 or even 20 mg. of nitrogen per gram of mannit used up. Krzemieniewski found in experiments with *A. chroococcum* that additions of humates to the culture solutions

increased the nitrogen fixed from a maximum of 2.4 mg. to a maximum of 14.9 mg.

The practical bearing of the foregoing data lies in the fact that the fixation of nitrogen in cultivated soils is limited, among other things, by the energy available, that is, by the quantity of readily decomposable organic residues. An indication as to the extent of these is given by the amount of humus present; nevertheless, this must remain an indication merely, for most of the humus is too inert to serve as a source of energy to *Azotobacter*. From the data at present available different investigators have estimated the quantity of nitrogen fixed by *Azotobacter* at 6.8 kg. to 18 kg. (15 to 40 pounds) per acre, per annum. Assuming favorable conditions for fixation, so that one pound of nitrogen could be fixed for every one hundred pounds of carbohydrate consumed, it would still take an equivalent of 680 kg. to 1,814 kg. (1500 to 4000 pounds) of sugar to produce this quantity of combined nitrogen. It may be noted in this connection that *Azotobacter* have been demonstrated to live in symbiosis with algæ, obtaining thereby the necessary energy for their activities. This may explain, perhaps, the remarkable facts observed by Headden in Colorado, relating to the accumulation of such enormous quantities of nitrate in the soil, as to destroy all vegetation. In some instances the nitrates were found to be present to the extent of 90718 kg. (100 tons), or more (per acre), to a depth of a few inches. If the accumulation of combined nitrogen was due to *Azotobacter*, as is claimed by Headden, and the bacterial residues oxidized by nitrifying bacteria to nitrates, it is difficult to account for the source of the 1,000 or 2,000 tons of carbohydrates necessarily used up in the process of fixation, unless it could be proved that the energy was furnished by algæ.

Symbiotic Fixation.

Historical.—Empirical observations extending well back into ancient agriculture have led to the recognition of the soil-enriching qualities of certain crops of the legume family. Columella mentions the fact that many Roman farmers regarded beans as possessing these qualities, but does not accept this belief for himself. On the other hand, he points out that luzerne (alfalfa), lupins and vetches improve the land and act as manure. He points out, also, that it was the practice of Roman farmers to plow under lupines in order to enrich the soil. In the centuries follow-

ing the fall of Rome the use of legumes for soil improvement persisted to some extent in Italy, France and other countries; yet the practice was not followed consistently and the fertility of European soils was declining for lack of available nitrogen, and, to a large extent, also of phosphoric acid. The more general introduction of clover into Germany and England in the eighteenth century helped to restore the fertility of many farms, and led, ultimately, to the recognition of the peculiar place held by legumes in the maintenance of soil fertility. But while practical farmers knew of the soil-enriching power of legumes, and while they retained their belief in it even when it seemed contrary to scientific authority, they did not know the secret of this power. It remained for Hellriegel and Wilfarth to demonstrate in 1886, and more fully in 1888, that this power, already hinted at by the investigations of others, is the resultant of the combined activities of the plants and of bacteria that enter their roots, and produce there the well known nodules or tubercles. They showed in no uncertain manner that legumes can improve the soil only in so far as they add nitrogen to it with the aid of the bacteria in the tubercles; in other words, legumes were shown to enter into a symbiotic relationship with certain bacteria and to acquire, thereby, the ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen.

The presence of tubercles on the roots of leguminous plants was first recorded by Malpighi in 1687. He regarded them as root galls. The botanists who studied them in the first half of the nineteenth century classified them as modifications of normal roots or as pathological processes. In 1866 the Russian botanist Woronin found that the tubercles were filled with minute bodies resembling bacteria and concluded that they were pathological outgrowths. Some years later Frank not only showed that tubercles are almost invariably present on the roots of legumes, but that their formation may be prevented by sterilizing the soil. Frank was thus in possession of facts that might have revealed to him the true nature of the root-tubercles. However, he later modified his belief in the origin of tubercles as due to outside infection, and accepted the interpretation of his pupil Brunchhorst who claimed that the bacteria-like bodies in the tubercles were merely reserve food materials. Because of their resemblance to bacteria Brunchhorst named them bacteroids.

The studies of Marshall Ward, published in 1887, proved not merely that tubercle formation is due to outside infection, but that such infection

may be brought about at will by placing the roots of young plants in contact with pieces of old tubercles. Hellriegel in his preliminary communication of 1886 also showed that outside infection is necessary for the production of tubercles, and called attention to the true function of the latter as laboratories wherein nitrogen compounds are manufactured out of elementary nitrogen. The true worth of Hellriegel's investigations was brought out more clearly in another paper that he published jointly with Wilfarth in 1888. The authors showed that in sterilized soils legumes behaved precisely like non-legumes, and died ultimately of nitrogen hunger when not provided with nitrates or other suitable nitrogen

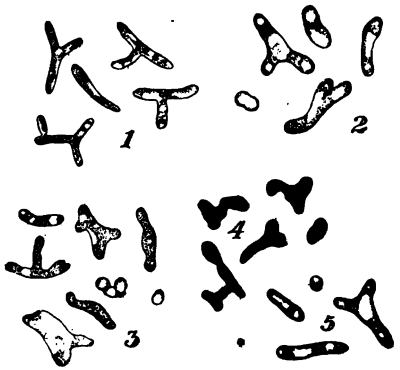


FIG. 68.—*Ps. radicicola.* 1, From *Melilotus alba;* 2 and 3, from *Medicago sativa;* 4, from *Vicia villosa.* (*After Harrison and Barlow from Lipman.*)

compounds. On the other hand, when the sterilized soil was later infected with a few drops of leachings from fresh soil that had supported a normal growth of legumes, the starving plants recovered and grew vigorously. Under the same conditions non-legumes did not recover. The recovery of the starving legumes was found to be coincident with the formation of tubercles.

Hellriegel and Wilfarth's studies were soon confirmed by the investigations of others. Wigand showed in 1887 that the tubercles contained within them true bacteria. In the following year Beyerinck reported the successful isolation of these bacteria on artificial media, and named the organism *B. radicicola* (Fig. 68). Prazmowski also isolated pure cultures of *B. radicicola,* and followed the entrance of the organisms into the root

hairs of young plants, their passage through the cell-walls, and their transformation into bacteroids. These facts were all confirmed by other investigators, and it was further shown by Schloesing and Laurent that properly inoculated legumes not only can grow in soils devoid of combined nitrogen, but that when growing in such soils in a confined atmosphere they decrease the quantity of nitrogen gas surrounding them by transforming it into nitrogen compounds. It was, therefore, made clear by these investigations, and by others not mentioned here for lack of space, that the belief of practical farmers in the soil enriching qualities of legumes was amply justified. It was shown, further, that the later experiments of Boussingault, as well as those of Lawes, Gilbert and Pugh failed to solve the problem because these investigators treated

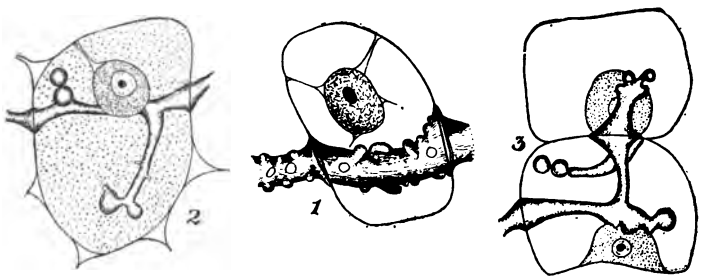


FIG. 69.—Sections through root tubercles. 1, Cell from tubercle of *Pisum sativum*, showing bacterial filament; 2 and 3, cells with bacterial filaments from tubercle of *Trifolium pannonicum*. (*After Stefan from Lipman.*)

their soil so as to prevent the survival and subsequent entrance of *B. radicicola*, and deprived the leguminous plants of the ability to utilize atmospheric nitrogen.

MODES OF ENTRANCE AND DEVELOPMENT.—Tubercle bacteria consisting of small motile rods usually enter the legumes by way of the root-hairs. For this reason young tubercles, with but few exceptions, are found on young roots. The organisms multiply at the point of infection and penetrate into adjacent plant-tissue by means of a hypha-like hollow thread or tube that seems to consist of a gelatinous material (Fig. 69). The tubes branch out as they pass from cell to cell and carry the invading organisms with them. The bacteria which may be readily detected within the tubes and cells are the involution forms of *Ps. radicicola* and assume various irregular shapes. They are designated as bacteroids.

Stefan has suggested that bacteroids may be produced within the tubes and, possibly, from the buds or swellings that appear on the tubes. While still young, the bacteroids are capable of dividing, but as they grow they swell up and finally degenerate.

RESISTANCE, IMMUNITY AND PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFICIENCY.—The invasion of legumes by *Ps. radicicola* and the acquisition by the plant, thanks to this invasion, of the power to fix elementary nitrogen are cited as a case of symbiosis. However, some writers would regard the presence of *Ps. radicicola* in legume roots as a case of parasitism. According to them symbiosis presupposes the living together of two organisms with resulting benefit to both. In the present instance, however, conditions may arise when the host plant is injured, rather than benefited; and similarly, conditions may arise when the invading bacteria are suppressed by the plants. Making due allowance for the objections raised we still find, nevertheless, that in the broad relation of the two groups of organisms there is an apparent benefit to both plants and bacteria. The former gain an adequate supply of nitrogen and the latter a supply of carbohydrates and of mineral salts.

A more detailed study of this relation shows that the plants resist the entrance of bacteria. When an abundance of available nitrogen compounds is supplied tubercle formation may be largely or wholly suppressed. In that case the plants secure their nitrogen from the soil and are not only independent of the bacteria, but are strong enough to resist their entrance. It is further claimed by Hiltner that tubercle bacteria differ in their virulence, and that the more virulent the organisms, the more readily will they penetrate the root tissue. Moreover, he believes that when a plant is invaded by organsms of any degree of virulence, the host plant becomes immune to a large extent and can keep out all but the most virulent bacteria. The use of the term virulence, in this connection, has been objected to, since it is borrowed from animal pathology and is likely to be misleading. It is better to employ the term *physiological efficiency* as implying not only a more pronounced ability to enter the plant roots, but also to fix atmospheric nitrogen. It is conceivable that strains of *Ps. radicicola* may be developed that would grow rapidly and yet possess but a feeble nitrogen-fixing power. In other words, they would possess a high vegetative power and a low physiological efficiency.

MECHANISM OF FIXATION.—It is generally believed that the fixation

of nitrogen is accomplished by the bacteria within the tubercles. The claim, at one time, advanced by Stoklasa, that the fixation is accomplished by the plants themselves with the aid of enzymes produced by the bacteria in their roots, has been disproved. It is known that the period of active nitrogen assimilation by the plants coincides with the appearance of the bacteroids in the tubercles, and it is supposed that the microörganisms fashion nitrogen compounds out of atmospheric nitrogen by using the carbohydrates and organic acids in the plant juices as a source of energy. The plants then seem to utilize the soluble nitrogen compounds that pass out of the bacterial cells. It is further supposed that bacteroid formation is an attempt on the part of the microörganisms to adjust themselves to the drain caused by the activities of the host plant.

VARIATIONS AND SPECIALIZATION.—Apparent differences in bacteria from different legumes were noted by Hellriegel. Some of his experiments indicated that bacteria from clovers could not produce tubercles on lupines and serradella. Analogous differences were found by Nobbe and his associates, nevertheless they were finally led to conclude that the root invasion of legumes is caused by a single species. However, continued association with any particular legume accomplished in the end a certain modification, or specialization, as it were, of the microörganisms, and they were then no longer able to invade the roots of other legume genera. Latterly, Hiltner and Störmer have been led to modify this view and have arranged the tubercle bacteria in two groups, possessing, according to them, well defined morphological and physiological differences. One of these groups is included under the species "*Rhizobium radicicola*" and the other under "*Rhizobium beyerinckii.*" The former comprises the organisms from lupines, serradella and soy beans while the latter comprises all of the others.

RELATION TO ENVIRONMENT.—Nitrogen fixation by leguminous vegetation is readily influenced by soil conditions, particularly the supply of lime and of other basic substances; the supply of organic matter and the aeration of the soil. As to the first of these it is well known that all legumes, with the exception of lupines and serradella, are stimulated in their growth by generous applications of lime. The top dressing of lawns with lime, marl or wood ashes encourages the appearance of white clover; an adequate supply of lime makes possible the successful growing of alfalfa in almost any soil, while the leguminous vegetation of limestone soils is proverbially vigorous. The favorable influence of lime is due to the

direct action on the plants as well as on the bacteria in the soil. Similarly, the tubercle bacteria are favorably affected in their survival and multiplication by an abundant supply of organic matter. On the other hand, acid soils or those deficient in humus and inadequately aerated are but ill suited to the activities of *Ps. radicicola*.

FIG. 70.—These two pea plants were grown in clean quartz sand to which had been added small quantities of all the necessary elements of plant food *except nitrogen*. The conditions were exactly identical except that plant A was without root nodules (see Fig. 71) and plant B had numerous nodules well developed (see Fig. 72). (*Mich. Exp. Station.*)

Soil Inoculation.*

By soil inoculation is now understood the adoption of some artificial method for supplying suitable quantities of nitrogen-fixing organisms to soils deficient in these types. The first attempts at soil inoculation were made in 1886 by Hellriegel and Wilfarth during the course of their studies on the cause of nitrogen accumulation by legumes. They found that when leguminous plants were grown in sterile sand, nodules

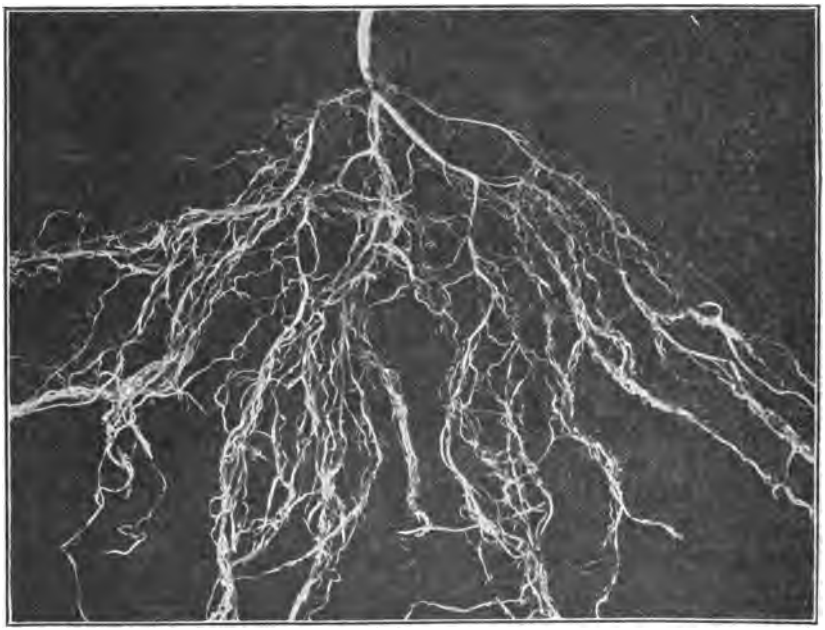


Fig. 71. (See Figs. 70 and 72.)

were formed on the roots only after the addition of a small portion of aqueous extract of fertile soil, or an extract of crushed nodules, or in some cases (lupines and seradella) by soil itself from a field on which these crops had been grown. The first successful artificial production of nodules by the aid of pure cultures was made in 1889 by Prazmowski in the course of studies on the method of entrance of the organism to the root hairs of the host plant.

*Prepared by S. F. Edwards.

The first inoculation experiments in a large way were those made in 1887 at the Moor Soil Experiment Station, Bremen, Germany, where earth taken from fields that had borne luxuriant crops of various legumes was scattered over reclaimed heath or swamp soils upon which legumes had not previously grown, with the result that in every instance the yield on the inoculated portions of land was greater than on the uninoculated plots. After such favorable results, it was but a natural step to try the effect

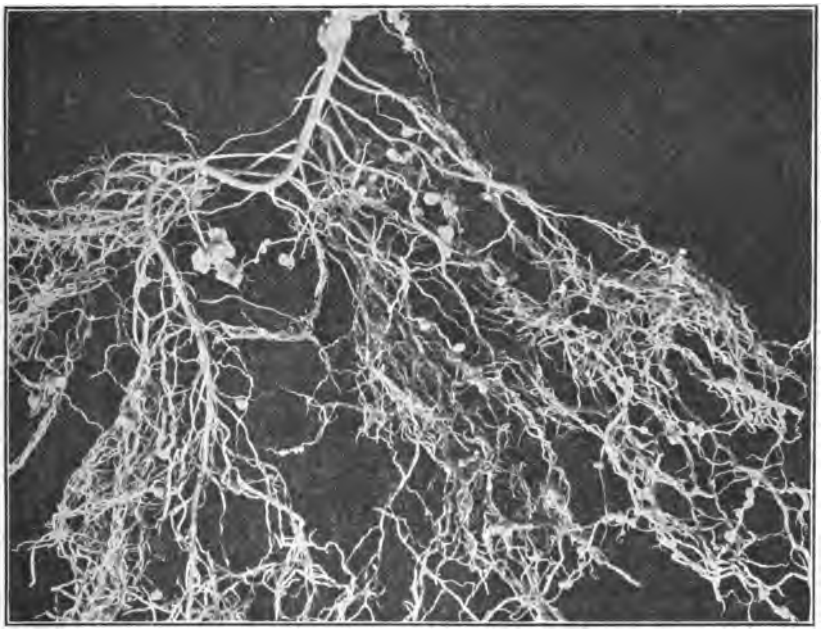


FIG. 72. (See Figs. 70 and 71.)

of similar applications of soil rich in the nodule-forming bacteria to ordinary cultivated soils of varying character. While results in some cases were eminently satisfactory in others there was no increase in the vigor or amount of the crop as a result of the inoculation.

METHODS OF SOIL INOCULATION.—From these early experimental results there evolved two general methods of inoculation, namely, the application of soil from an already inoculated field, and the application of pure cultures of the nodule-forming bacteria to the seed before sowing.

Inoculation with Legume-Earth.—The use of soil as inoculating material was tried by various experiment stations of the United States, with results not varying widely from those secured in the pioneer experimental work at Bremen. It was found in general that the commonly grown crops, such as the common clovers, peas and beans, made little or no increase as a result of inoculation with old legume-soil. With new crops, however, such as alfalfa and soy beans when they were first introduced, it was found impossible in many places to secure a successful stand until the fields on which these crops were to be grown had received a top-dressing of soil from land that had already grown the crop in question; and it became a common practice to inoculate soil in this manner before seeding with these new crops. It was early observed, however, that this method of soil transfer for inoculation purposes was not an unmixed benefit. Aside from the expense and difficulty of handling and transportation of soil, fungus and bacterial diseases, not only of legumes but of other crops, as well as the seeds of noxious weeds, were transmitted from one field to another and even from one section of country to another. It was to avoid this difficulty that the preparation of pure cultures was introduced.

Inoculation with Pure Cultures. Nitragin.—The first pure culture method was launched in 1896 by Nobbe and Hiltner, German investigators who prepared cultures of the legume bacteria on nutrient gelatin and arranged with a firm of manufacturing chemists to place them on the market under the trade name of *Nitragin.*

Nitragin met with an enthusiastic reception on the part of experimenters and farmers. The results of its use, however, were so varying and uncertain that the product fell into disrepute and its manufacture was discontinued. Improvements have been made by Hiltner and his associates, and a new *Nitragin* which has been placed on the market within the past four years has given results much more positive and uniform than were obtained with the old preparation.

Dried Cultures.—In the United States the matter of pure cultures was first taken up by the Department of Agriculture about 1902. Cultures of the nodule-forming bacteria were cultivated in nitrogen-free culture media, dried on cotton and distributed to farmers with a small package of salts from which a culture solution was to be made by the farmer and applied to the seed. This method gave poor results, chiefly because the bacteria could not withstand the drying on cotton. Afterwards the cultures were sent in a liquid condition with somewhat

more satisfactory results. The dry cotton cultures were exploited for a time by a commercial firm under the name of *Nitro-culture*, and somewhat similar cultures were placed on the market in England under the name of *Nitro-bacterine*. Cultures of both kinds, however, have been shown to be valueless, both by microbiological and by planting tests.

Cultures on Agar.—The most promising results thus far in the use of pure cultures appear to have been secured at the Ontario Experimental Farm, where Harrison originated the method of growing the bacteria upon a nitrogen-poor agar medium. By this method the farmer has simply to apply the bacteria to the seed just before sowing. These cultures as used on all the common legumes, sown in all kinds of soil, have given favorable results in about 65 per cent of trials. Similar agar cultures are now prepared by commercial firms who have adopted Harrison's method and also by some of the U. S. Agricultural Experiment Stations. Liquid cultures of *Nitragin* are also sold in Europe and America.

Alinit.—Alinit was the trade name applied to cultures placed on the market in 1897, of *B. ellenbachensis*, isolated by Caron, owner of the Ellenbach estate in Germany, and claimed by him to be one of the non-symbiotic nitrogen-fixing bacteria. Alinit was examined and tested by numerous investigators and the organism was found to be incapable of nitrogen-fixation.

Azotobacter Cultures.—A great deal of experimental work is being conducted at the present time in the use of artificial cultures of the azotobacter species. The results thus far, however, are contradictory, and much more work needs to be done to prove the efficiency of such cultures.

The lack of complete success thus far with artificial cultures for soil inoculation does not afford sufficient ground for condemnation of the method. Failure may often be attributed to unsuitable soil conditions rather than any inherent failing in the culture used, and no method of inoculation will compensate for poor physical or chemical condition of the soil itself. The principle of using artificial cultures to be applied with the seed is sound, and if the cultures contain large numbers of living bacteria, there is little reason why they should not prove of benefit when used under soil conditions that would seem to warrant their need.

CHAPTER IV.

CHANGES IN INORGANIC CONSTITUENTS.

Weathering Process.

Origin and Formation of Soil.—Rock surfaces exposed to the action of rain, sunshine and frost lose their fresh appearance, become pitted and uneven, and gradually crumble into larger and smaller fragments. In the course of time the layer of disintegrated material becomes deeper and its constituent particles smaller—thanks to the uninterrupted process of subdivision. Finally, lichens, algæ and bacteria make their appearance, the organic débris accumulates, and higher plants begin to find a suitable environment for their development. The rock has changed into soil.

Influence of Biological Factors.—Soil-formation is not entirely a mechanical or chemical process. Even before the layer of weathered rock acquires any appreciable depth microscopical and macroscopical forms of life gain a foot-hold on the uneven surface. With the aid of sunlight they build organic compounds and make use of combined or elementary nitrogen of the atmosphere. Their life activities result in the production of carbon dioxide and of varying organic and inorganic acids which in their turn react with the constituents of the rock particles. In this manner the biological activities become of utmost moment in the transformation and migration of mineral substances in nature. They assume an important rôle in the circulation of calcium and magnesium, with the accompanying phenomena that find most striking expression in the formation of caves and canyons in limestone strata. They assume a no less important rôle in the circulation of sulphur; in the accumulation and removal of available potash compounds in the soil, as well as in the transformation of phosphorus and its migration from inorganic to organic compounds.

Lime and Magnesia.

Removal and Regeneration of Carbonates.—Lime and magnesia are present in soils in different combinations. They may occur as

silicates, carbonates, phosphates, humates, sulphates, etc. In humid climates the carbonates are being continually removed from weathered rock material, as is plainly shown by the composition of drainage waters. The losses become much greater in cultivated soils—thanks to the humus and the microörganisms present in them. The absolute amounts lost from year to year will depend on the proportion of lime and magnesia in the soil, the mechanical composition of the latter, its content of humus and the methods of tillage and fertilization. According to Hall the soils of the experiment fields at Rothamsted, containing about 3 per cent of calcium carbonate, are losing lime at the rate of 362 kg. to 453 kg. (800 to 1,000 pounds) per acre annually. In certain sections of Scotland where liming has been practised for a long time the farmers estimate the loss of lime from the land at 6 bushels per acre, annually; that is, approximately at the rate of 226 kg. to 272 kg. (500 to 600 pounds). In New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and other eastern states farmers who use lime more or less regularly apply one ton of it at the beginning of each five year rotation. This would provide for an annual loss of 181 kg. (400 pounds) per acre. The loss of lime and magnesia is increased under intensive methods of agriculture. When animal manures and green manures are employed, microbial activities are stimulated, the production of carbon dioxide is encouraged and the loss of the soluble calcium bicarbonate made greater. The removal of lime is hastened even to a more striking extent when ammonium salts are applied to the land. The resulting nitrification and loss of lime are illustrated by the following equation:

$$(NH_4)_2SO_4 + 2CaCO_3 + 4O_2 = Ca(NO_3)_2 + CaSO_4 + 4H_2O + 2CO_2$$

As was already indicated, the loss of calcium and magnesium carbonate from the soil is effected largely through the activities of bacteria and of other microörganisms. At the same time microörganic life is responsible for the restoration of varying amounts of carbonates. It has been demonstrated that, in the weathering of the complex silicates, carbonates and silicic acid may be formed in considerable quantities. In the presence of decaying organic matter and the consequent evolution of carbon dioxide the formation of carbonates from silicates may be extensive enough to balance the losses. Similarly, calcium carbonate may be formed in the soil from humates and from the calcium salts of simpler organic acids. They may be formed, also, through the activities of denitrifying and other

reducing bacteria from the corresponding nitrates and sulphates. As pointed out by Nadson ammonium carbonate produced in the decomposition of protein compounds may react with calcium sulphate as follows:

$$(NH_4)_2CO_3 + CaSO_4 = CaCO_3 + (NH_4)_2SO_4$$

Moreover, calcium sulphate may be reduced to sulphide and may react with carbon dioxide as follows:

$$CaS + CO_2 + H_2O = CaCO_3 + H_2S$$

Magnesium would be subject to similar reactions and Nadson has observed the formation of a mixture of calcium and magnesium carbonates (corresponding to dolorite in composition) in media inoculated with a pure culture of *B.* (*Proteus*) *vulgaris*.

LIME AS A BASE.—The carbon dioxide generated in vast amounts in the life processes of most soil bacteria, the nitrous and nitric acids formed by the nitro-bacteria, the sulphuric acids produced in the oxidation of hydrogen sulphide and of sulphur by the so-called sulphur bacteria, and the great variety of organic acids formed in the decomposition of carbohydrates, fats and proteins all react with basic substances in the soil Of these basic substances calcium carbonate is by far the most prominent. Combining with the different acids it maintains a favorable reaction for microörganic life in the soil.

The calcium salts thus formed are more or less soluble. In this manner enormous amounts of lime are annually carried to the ocean as bicarbonates, and to an appreciable extent also as nitrate and sulphate Thus soil bacteria help to furnish shell fish and other forms of marine life, the material necessary for the building of their skeletons. In the course of ages the latter become a portion of the solid land and as coral reefs, chalk cliffs and marl beds offer to microörganisms a new opportunity to start calcium carbonate on its migrations.

EFFECT OF CALCIUM AND MAGNESIUM COMPOUNDS ON BACTERIAL ACTIVITIES.—Being basic in character calcium and magnesium carbonates are of great service in maintaining a suitable reaction in the soil. But somewhat apart from this service calcium and magnesium compounds seem to be particularly important for the growth of certain organisms. It has already been observed by Winogradski and Omelianski that magnesium carbonate is especially useful in facilitating the isolation and culture of nitrate bacteria. Heinze and others have noted the favorable action of calcium carbonate on the growth of *Azotobacter*, while the beneficial

influence of calcium carbonate and sulphate on the development of *Ps. radicicola* has been repeatedly observed by different investigators.

PHOSPHORUS.

AVAILABILITY OF PHOSPHATES.—Phosphorus exists in the soil largely in the form of phosphates of calcium, magnesium, iron and aluminum. A small portion of it occurs in organic combination in lecithin, phytin and other compounds. The soil phosphates possess a very slight degree of solubility and often fail to become available rapidly enough to meet the demands of the growing crop. Fortunately the presence of carbon dioxide generated from decaying organic matter hastens the solution of the inert phosphates, thus:

$$Ca_3(PO_4)_2 + 2CO_2 + 2H_2O = Ca_2H_2(PO_4)_2 + Ca(HCO_3)_2$$

For this reason a maximum supply of available phosphates may be secured by plants in the presence of readily decomposable organic matter.

Apart from carbon dioxide as a means for making available inert phosphates, bacteria produce organic and inorganic acids that are of direct service. The influence of nitrous, nitric and sulphuric acids, all of them products of bacterial activity, is undoubtedly of some importance. The influence of lactic, acetic and butyric acids, as well as of the more complex humic acids, must be of considerable moment. For instance, in the decomposition of bone meal by *B. mycoides*, Stoklasa found that 23 per cent of the phosphoric acid had become soluble, whereas in similar uninoculated portions of bone meal only 3 per cent of soluble phosphoric acid was found. The significance of organic acids produced by microörganisms is brought out even more strongly in the loss of phosphates from acid soils.

In so far as the organic phosphorus compounds are concerned bacterial activities are important in that the processes of decay restore the phosphorus to circulation. Hence, it will be seen that microörganisms are directly concerned in the migration of phosphorus from the soil to the plant and from the plant back to the soil.

RELATION OF PHOSPHORUS TO DECAY AND NITROGEN-FIXATION.—Just as bacteria influence the transformation of phosphorus compounds in the soil, so phosphorus itself affects the growth and activities of bacteria. As one of the essential constituents of living cells it reacts on the growth of microörganisms and influences species relationships. There are un-

doubtedly species whose phosphorus requirement is greater than that of other species. Indeed, conditions may arise that favor the rapid assimilation of soluble phosphates by bacteria. In that case the microörganisms would act as competitors to the higher plants. Among the species favorably affected by an abundant supply of phosphates *Azotobacter* is quite prominent. Hence nitrogen-fixation is in a measure dependent upon a proper supply of phosphorus compounds.

SULPHUR.

SULPHUR COMPOUNDS IN THE SOIL.—Sulphur occurs in the soil in the form of sulphates and in that of organic compounds. In ill-aerated soils the reduction products of sulphates; viz., sulphites, sulphides and even elementary sulphur may be present in small amounts as a transition stage. According to Berthelot and André the protein compounds of the soil humus are quantitatively more important than the sulphates. However, this is not true of arid and semi-arid soils in which sulphates represent a larger store of combined sulphur than is contained in organic substances.

SULPHUR BACTERIA.—In the decomposition of protein compounds with a limited supply of air, hydrogen sulphide and mercaptans are evolved. The quantities of hydrogen sulphide produced may be large enough to become perceptible to the sense of smell, as happens in the putrefaction of eggs. At the bottom of seas, rivers, lakes and ponds (in canals, ditches, swamps, etc.) as well as in finer-grained soils the production of hydrogen sulphide goes on almost uninterruptedly owing to the activities of a great variety of bacteria. The hydrogen sulphide thus generated serves as a source of energy to a group of organisms known as sulphur bacteria. The oxidation of the hydrogen sulphide by these bacteria may be expressed by the following equations:

$$2H_2S + O_2 = 2H_2O + S_2$$
$$S_2 + 2O_2 = 2SO_2$$

The sulphur dioxide produced is further changed into sulphuric acid in the presence of oxygen and water. In its turn the acid reacts with some base, usually calcium carbonate, resulting in the formation of calcium sulphate. Thus:

$$SO_2 + O + H_2O = H_2SO_4$$
$$H_2SO_4 + CaCO_3 = CaSO_4 + H_2O + CO_2$$

We owe much of our knowledge concerning the sulphur bacteria to Winogradski. This investigator showed that in places where hydrogen sulphide is generated in considerable quantities sulphur bacteria grow vigorously and accumulate granules of sulphur within their cells. When the cells containing sulphur granules are removed to suitable media, in which no hydrogen sulphide is present, the sulphur seems to be gradually oxidized and disappears and the bacteria finally die of starvation. Thanks to the sulphur bacteria, the higher plants are enabled to utilize again the sulphur once locked up in plant and animal tissues, and liberated thence by decay bacteria. The circulation of sulphur is thus made possible and the cycle is completed when the sulphates are again used by plants to build protein compounds. It may also be noted in this connection that "*Thiobacillus denitrificans*," described by Beyerinck, may also oxidize elementary sulphur. In this case, however, the oxygen is derived from nitrates instead of the atmosphere. Thus:

$$6KNO_3 + 5S + 2CaCO_3 = 3K_2SO_4 + 2CaSO_4 + 2CO_2 + 3N_2$$

SULPHATE REDUCTION.—The fact that sulphates may be reduced to sulphides in the presence of organic matter has been known for many years. In compost heaps, and at the bottom of seas, lakes and rivers, the reduction of calcium sulphate is of common occurrence. Similarly, ferrous sulphate may be reduced in water-logged soils and in swamps and may give rise to deposits of bog iron. But while sulphate reduction is of common occurrence in certain localities, it has been shown by Beyerinck and also by van Delden, that the reduction can be accomplished in artificial media by specific microörganisms. Two species isolated by these investigators have been named *Sp. desulphuricans* and *Msp. æstuarii*. When grown under anaerobic conditions in culture media supplied with combined nitrogen and organic nutrients these organisms were found capable of reducing sulphates. The oxygen withdrawn from the sulphates was used for the oxidation of organic matter in a manner analogous to that in nitrate reduction where the oxygen is derived from the nitrates. Apart from the two microspiræ that cause the specific reactions just noted, there are many common soil bacteria that may be responsible for sulphate reduction in a less direct manner. Nadson has observed that when the supply of oxygen is limited calcium sulphate may be reduced to sulphide by *B. mycoides* and by *B.* (*Proteus*) *vulgaris*. The calcium

sulphide according to him may react with carbon dioxide and water, giving rise to the formation of hydrogen sulphide. Thus:

$$CaS + CO_2 + H_2O = CaCO_3 + H_2S$$

The hydrogen sulphide derived from sulphates or from proteins becomes a source of energy to the sulphur bacteria as already noted in the preceding pages.

Potassium.

The Transformation of Potassium Compounds in the Soil.—Potassium occurs in the soil largely in the form of silicate minerals. Smaller amounts occur as nitrate, carbonate and in organic compounds. The portion present as silicates is often very large in clay loam soils, amounting not infrequently to 22,679 kg. to 34.019 kg. (50,000 to 75,000 pounds) per acre foot. Unfortunately for the farmer, the growing crops fail, in many cases, to secure sufficient quantities of available potash for their rapid development, notwithstanding these enormous stores of potassium compounds. However, when sufficient quantities of readily fermentable organic matter are present and the generation of carbon dioxide is rapid the silicates weather sufficiently fast to meet the demands of maximum harvests. The part played by carbon dioxide in the transformation of inert potash compounds may be illustrated by the following reaction:

$$Al_2O_3K_2O\ 6SiO_2 + CO_2 + 2H_2O = Al_2O_3\ 2SiO_2\ 2H_2O + K_2CO_3 + 4SiO_2$$

Under actual conditions it is the aim of the farmer to stimulate bacterial activities (and, therefore, the production of carbon dioxide) in his land by the use of animal manures or green manures and of commercial fertilizers. Apart from the influence of carbon dioxide available potash compounds may likewise be formed on account of nitric, sulphuric, acetic, lactic, butyric and other acids produced by different soil bacteria.

Other Mineral Constituents.

Iron.—The investigations of Ehrenberg, Winogradski, Molisch, Adler, Ellis and others have accumulated a mass of data relating to the so-called iron bacteria. These organisms belong to the class of higher bacteria and have a marked ability to precipitate iron oxide out of solutions of iron salts. Winogradski believed that the reaction is a physiological

one in that the microörganisms oxidize ferrous to ferric compounds, and utilize for their growth the energy thus made available. The investigations of Molisch, Adler and Ellis show, however, that the iron bacteria can exist very well without iron compounds; and that the precipitation of iron oxide is due to mechanical rather than chemical influences. But whether physiological or mechanical the influence of these microörganisms is felt in the formation of bog iron, and in the filling up of iron pipes; in the latter instance much annoyance is occasionally experienced by those in charge of municipal water supplies.

Compounds of iron are of considerable significance in the life processes of many bacterial species. For instance, it was shown by the Lipman and after him by Koch, that *Azotobacter* will not develop in culture media devoid of iron compounds. In field practice small applications of ferrous sulphate often seem to exert a favorable effect on crop growth, and there is reason to suspect that soil-microbial activities are of some moment in bringing about the results noted.

ALUMINUM, MANGANESE, COPPER.—Weathering processes and the relation of carbon dioxide to these processes have already been discussed in connection with calcium and potassium compounds. To a great extent aluminum is affected by these reactions, for in the decomposition of feldspar kaolinite is one of the important products formed. Hence, bacteria become a factor of considerable importance in the formation of hydrated silicates of aluminum, at least, in the presence of organic matter. Moreover, it is recognized in the ceramic industries that after it is dug clay must undergo ripening in order to be suitable for certain purposes. The ripening process involves the activities of bacteria. Unfortunately very little is known about the reactions that occur in the ripening of clay.

As to manganese and copper there is scarcely any experimental evidence available as to the part played by their compounds in the soil, particularly in so far as they affect microörganic life. To some extent, it is known that where Bordeaux mixture has been employed for spraying potatoes, cranberries, fruit trees, etc., plant growth is subsequently stimulated to a striking extent. In view of the very slight quantities of copper that are actually added to the soil by these sprays, it is possible that the effects noted are caused by stimulated or changed microbial activities. This view finds some support in the influence exerted by copper sulphate on the growth of algæ in lakes, ponds, and shallow streams.

DIVISION IV.

MICROBIOLOGY OF MILK AND MILK PRODUCTS.

CHAPTER I.*

THE RELATION OF MICROORGANISMS TO MILK.

IMPORTANCE OF MILK AS A FOOD.

Fresh normal milk is one of the most important of human foods. It has a pleasant taste and aroma and is generally liked as a food or drink; but unless properly cared for will not long remain in its normal condition. No article of human diet is more susceptible to undesirable changes, due to the delicate nature of the milk itself and to the conditions naturally surrounding its production and handling. The injurious changes which commonly occur in milk are of two kinds.

ABSORBED TAINTS AND ODORS.

Milk is very quickly affected by odors of any sort. The foreign odor may be absorbed before the milk leaves the udder if the cow has eaten strong feeds, such as cabbage, onions, etc., or it may be absorbed after the milk is drawn from the cow. If milk is exposed to any strong odor, such as silage or foul air, resulting from lack of ventilation in the stable at milking time, these odors will be taken up by the milk with surprising rapidity. If placed in an ice chest with fresh strawberries or pineapple, or foods like cabbage or turnips, the milk will very quickly absorb the odor of these foods. The absorption of any foreign odor gives to milk a decidedly disagreeable taste. This is true even when the odor which is absorbed is pleasant in itself as is the case of strawberries or pineapples. When the "off" flavors are

* Prepared by W. A. Stocking with the exception of the paragraphs treating the acid-forming bacteria, prepared by E. G. Hastings.

due to absorption they are strongest at the outset and become less pronounced as the milk becomes older, especially if it is subjected to some method of aeration.

Changes Due to Microörganisms.

While absorption of foreign odors is not uncommon, perhaps most of the undesirable flavors, found in milk when it reaches the consumer, are caused not by absorption but by the growth of microörganisms in the milk. In this class the changes are slight at first and increase with the age of the milk. Changes of this sort include the common phenomena of souring and curdling, the so-called sweet curdling, ropy or slimy milk, bitter flavors, gassy milk and a large variety of changes usually known as barny or cowy odors and flavors. If milk could be kept free from microörganisms it might be kept for some time without showing perceptible changes in appearance or taste. No other food product will undergo fermentation changes as rapidly as milk because it is an ideal culture medium for the growth of most kinds of microörganisms, especially bacteria and yeasts. Not only does milk contain the needed food elements but, being in liquid form, they are easily available for the use of the microörganisms. The proteins and milk sugar are most easily attacked and it is the breaking down of these which causes most of the changes in the milk.

Microbial Content of Milk.

When we recognize the extreme ease with which milk undergoes bacterial changes we are not surprised to find that ordinary milk, when delivered to the consumer, contains relatively large numbers of bacteria. The amount of care exercised in the production and handling is a most important factor in determining the bacterial infection of milk. On this basis milk may be roughly divided into three classes.

Common Milk.—Age is one of the chief factors in determining the germ content of milk. We are, therefore, not surprised to find the milk in large cities having a much higher germ content than in smaller cities and towns. The normal germ content of ordinary milk as it is found in the cities may be shown by the following tables.

*Bacteria in Boston Milk.**

Average taken from 2,394 Samples.

From June to September.

	Per cent
Below 100,000 bacteria per c.c.	42.0
Between 100,000 and 500,000 per c.c.	29.75
Between 500,000 and 1,000,000 per c.c.	9.75
Between 1,000,000 and 5,000,000 per c.c.	12.75
Above 5,000,000 per c.c.	5.0
Uncountable plates	0.75

Bacterial Counts of Chicago (Raw) Milk.†

Date	Number of samples	Average count	Lowest count	Highest count
January, 1910	64	1,067,000	27,000	5,500,000
April, 1910	43	5,948,000	14,000	150,000,000
July, 1910	183	12,548,000	8,000	190,000,000

Bacteria in Milk of Connecticut Cities.‡

Bacterial count	Number of samples
Under 50,000	1,707
50,000–100,000	130
100,000–500,000	459
500,000–1,000,000	98
Over 1,000,000	73

These figures give the results of 2,467 samples collected in seventy-five different towns in the State from October 1, 1908 to October 1, 1909.

Goler gives the average bacterial count for 1,057 samples of market milk collected in Rochester during the year 1909 as 446,099 per c.c. Of these samples 1.79 per cent were above 5,000,000 and 38.4 per cent below 100,000.

In Montclair, N. J., the average bacterial count for the year 1909 from samples representing fifty-seven dairies was 53,000 per c.c.

In Ithaca, N. Y., 148 samples were taken for the year beginning April 1, 1909, and ending March 31, 1910. The average bacterial count of these samples was 221,000.

* Data given by Hill and Slack
† Data given by Tonney.
‡ Data given by Conn.

The immense numbers of bacteria found in milk in the large cities are usually the result of the rapid growth of the *Bact. lactis acidi* group resulting from the age of the milk and the temperature at which it has been kept. Such milk may also contain large numbers of those saprophytic organisms which occur in the atmosphere and about the stables and milk-house. The number of this group depends largely upon the sanitary conditions of production and the initial contamination. In ordinary milk organisms of the *Bact. lactis acidi* type will constitute a very large percentage of those present when the milk reaches the city even before it shows any perceptible signs of souring. During the past few years great progress has been made in the production of clean milk, and at present quite an important part of the general milk supply of our cities has a very much lower germ content than it had a few years ago.

SPECIAL MILKS.—In this class may be considered those milks known as *Selected*, *Inspected*, or *Guaranteed*. As commonly used these terms mean milk which has been produced and handled with considerably more care than ordinary market milk but not with the extreme care required for *certified* milk. Guaranteed milk is produced by herds which have been shown by the tuberculin test to be free from tuberculosis. Considerable care is exercised in all the operations of handling the milk. The result is that these milks usually have a much lower germ content than the ordinary milk supply of the same city. Sometimes the germ content of such milk compares favorably with that of certified milk. These milks may contain various types of normal milk organisms but they should not contain any tubercle bacteria.

CERTIFIED MILK.—Certified milk means milk which has been produced according to the regulations of and under the supervision of a medical milk commission. The stables and cows are kept extremely clean. No dust is allowed in the stable at milking time. The cow's flanks and udder are washed just before milking, the milkers wear white suits and wash their hands before milking each cow. Small-top pails are used and the milk is cooled as soon as drawn from the cow. The extreme care exercised in the production and handling of this milk has a very marked effect on the number of bacteria found in it. The following counts are typical of certified milk.

*Bacterial Counts of Certified Milk in Different Cities.**

Boston, Sept. 1, 1909 to Sept. 30, 1910.

Dairy number	Number samples	Average bacteria
1	17	5,794
2	13	4,176
3	30	6,825
4	12	1,475
5	7	2,294

New York City, Oct., 1909 to Sept., 1910.†

Farm number	Average count
1	11,132
2	10,516
3	8,504
4	16,193
5	2,863
6	11,246
7	23,705
8	5,370
9	15,062
10	459

Chicago.

Dairy Number	Number counts	Average number bacteria
1	51	5,612
2	60	4,078
3	43	6,502
4	17	2,553

Brooklyn.

Moak gives the average of 321 counts for certified milk delivered in Brooklyn during the first six months of 1910 as 4,095 bacteria per c.c. The best average from any one farm was 561 bacteria per c.c.

* Data given by Arms.

† Data given by Park.

Sources of Microörganisms in Milk.

The sources from which bacteria get into the milk have been the subject of much investigation during the past few years, until now the chief sources of contamination are pretty well understood. These sources may be grouped in a general way under the following heads:

Fig. 73.—Vertical section of one quarter of udder showing teat, milk cistern, and larger milk ducts. (*After Ward and Hopkins.*)

Interior of the Cow's Udder. *Healthy Udders.*—Milk as it is secreted by the normal udder of a healthy cow is comparatively free from bacteria. It is very difficult, however, to obtain milk from the udder which

does not contain bacteria in greater or less numbers. This is due to the fact that immediately after secretion the milk becomes contaminated by bacteria which exist in the interior of the udder. Early investigators, notably de Freudenreich and Grotenfelt, believed that milk was entirely free from microörganims. Later investigations, however, by Moore, Ward, Bolley, Hall and others, have shown that the healthy udder normally contains bacteria in appreciable numbers. It has been found that bacteria are present even in the upper portions of the udder in the small milk passages leading from the secreting cells. These organisms, which normally exist in the milk passages of the udder, gain entrance through the orifice in the end of the teat where they find suitable conditions for growth and, once inside, work up through the milk cistern to the larger milk ducts and finally though all parts of the udder (Fig. 73). The number of bacteria found in the udder varies widely in different cows as may be seen by the following experiments:

Bacterial Content of Entire Milk of Different Cows.

Cow No. 1,	850 bacteria per c.c.
Cow No. 2,	750 bacteria per c.c.
Cow No. 3,	25 bacteria per c.c.
Cow No. 4,	112 bacteria per c.c.
Cow No. 5,	70 bacteria per c.c.
Cow No. 6,	1850 bacteria per c.c.

If portions of milk are taken at different intervals during the process of milking in such a way that all external contamination is prevented, it will be found that the first few streams or "fore-milk" contain many more organisms than the milk drawn later. After the first ten or twelve streams the number of organisms will decrease quite rapidly, normally becoming less and less until the final strippings, when there is usually a marked increase. This condition indicates that the larger number of organisms exist in the milk cistern and larger milk ducts in the lower part of the udder and are therefore removed during the early part of the milking. The increase at the end of the milking is probably due to the greater manipulation, resulting in dislodging some of the organisms which have adhered to the walls of the milk passages.

Not only does the number of organisms in different cows vary, but there is a marked difference in the different quarters of the same udder, as shown by the following figures:

Bacteria in Different Quarters of Cow's Udder.

	Right fore quarter	Right hind quarter	Left fore quarter	Left hind quarter
Cow No. 1.....	18	13	55	13
Cow No. 2.....	40	233	50	30
Cow No. 3.....	340	60	90	32

The number of organisms normally found in the udder is much smaller than would be expected when we consider the fact that ideal conditions of food and temperature are provided in the udder. The relatively small number of organisms is perhaps due to some germicidal action existing in the udder. Attempts to increase the germ content in the udder by injecting cultures of different species of saprophytic bacteria have failed to produce a continued increase, the injected organisms usually decreasing very rapidly in numbers until they disappear at the end of a few days. From the standpoint of ordinary market milk, the number of bacteria found in the healthy udder is so small that it is of little commercial importance. In dairies where a very small germ content is desired, however, this source of infection must be taken into account and in certain cases individual cows, which normally have a high bacteria content in the udder, can be discarded to advantage.

It is evident that many species do not find the conditions in the udder suitable for their growth, since investigations have shown that comparatively few species exist for any length of time in the healthy udder. Certain types of cocci are the predominating forms with occasional cultures of other species. The *Bact. lactis acidi* type does not thrive in the udder. The types of organisms commonly found there do not seem to develop rapidly in the milk when it is held at low temperatures and fail to produce any appreciable changes in it.

Diseased Udders.—If, however, the cow is suffering from tuberculosis in the udder, the bacterial condition may be quite different from that described above. In this case, the milk may be filled with the tubercle bacteria before it leaves the udder. In cases of inflammatory trouble in the udder the milk may contain very large numbers of organisms, frequently many millions per c.c. at the time the milk is drawn.

EXTERIOR OF COW'S BODY.—The nature of the cow's coat and the condition under which she is normally kept favor the accumulation of dust and bacteria upon her body. Unless special care is taken to keep the cow's body free from dust, the organisms which fall into the milk from this source at milking-time will constitute one of the most important

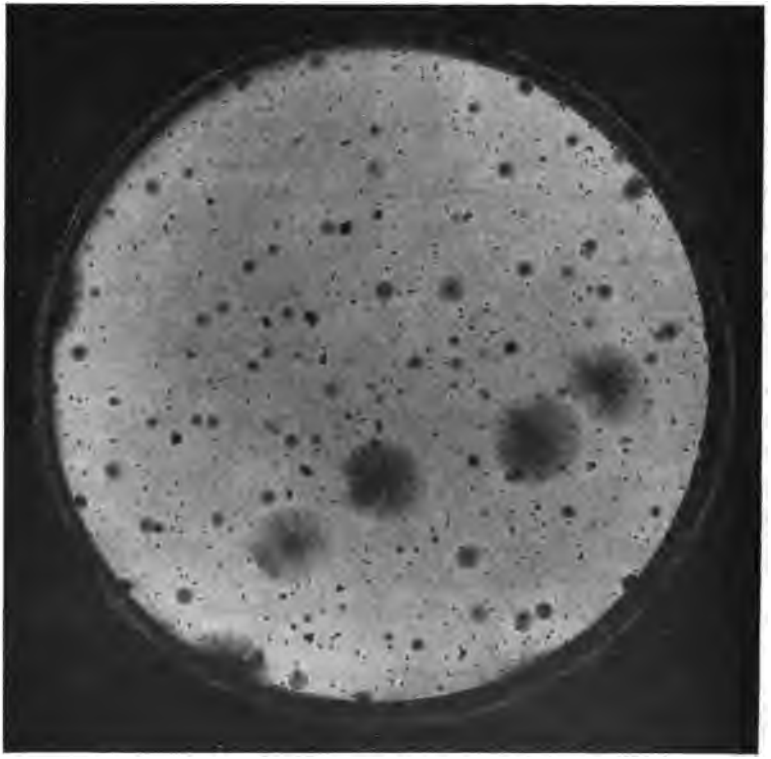


FIG. 74.—Colonies developing in agar plate held for ten seconds in position of milk pail after udder was brushed gently with the hand. (Original.)

sources of contamination. The importance of this source of contamination may be recognized when we see what large numbers of microörganisms may be carried by small particles of dust or an individual cow hair.

The importance of this source of contamination depends very largely upon the conditions under which the cows are kept and the care exercised

in cleaning just previous to milking. In many of the certified milk dairies this source of contamination is reduced to a minimum and has little effect upon the milk.

ATMOSPHERE OF STABLE AND MILK HOUSE.—Next to the cow's body, the atmosphere of the stable is often the most important factor in determining the bacterial content of fresh milk. In sanitary dairies this

FIG. 75.—Colonies developing from cow-hairs planted in agar plate. (Original.)

factor is fully recognized and every effort is made to prevent the presence of dust in the atmosphere at the time of milking. The atmosphere is sometimes sprayed either with the hose or with steam in order to settle every particle of dust at milking time. In stables where the importance of this factor is not recognized and dust is allowed to exist in the atmosphere at milking time, the number of bacteria in the milk will be materially increased.

THE MILKER.—Not infrequently the milker himself is an important source of contamination. If his clothing and hands are dirty or if he brushes against the cow, the dust thus dislodged may carry into the milk large numbers of microörganisms. This is shown in the difference in the germ-content of milk drawn by two men milking in the same barn under identical conditions.

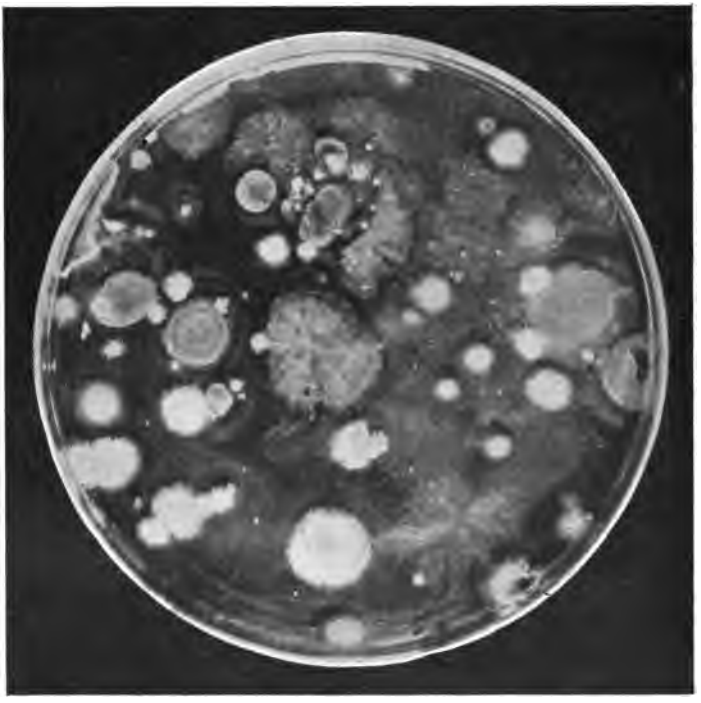


FIG. 76.—Colonies developed from a bit of dust found in cow stable. Agar plate culture. (Original.)

Difference in Number of Bacteria in Milk Drawn by Men in Same Stable.

	Number of milkings	Number of bacteria per c.c.
Milker No. 1.....	19	2,450
Milker No. 2.....	19	17,100

THE UTENSILS.—If properly cared for, the dairy utensils should not add to the germ content of the milk. Not infrequently, however, they are faulty in construction. In open seams and other places the milk may accumulate and not be thoroughly washed out. Usually when utensils of this sort are used, the methods for washing and sterilizing are not sufficient and bacteria multiply in large numbers in the cracks and crevices and contaminate each new lot of milk put into them. Sometimes utensils which are properly constructed may contaminate the milk because they have not been properly cleansed and sterilized. The use of steam is the most efficient means of sterilizing all dairy utensils, but boiling water may give very satisfactory results if used at actual boiling temperature. If not used at the boiling temperature some of the more resistant organisms will not be killed and will be left to inoculate the fresh milk. The ropy milk organism, *B. lactis viscosus*, often remains in the utensils from day to day in this way.

WATER SUPPLY.—Sometimes the water used for washing the dairy utensils is a serious source of contamination. Serious epidemics of disease have been traced to this source where the utensils were washed with water contaminated by typhoid or other disease organisms and were not sufficiently sterilized to kill those remaining in the utensils. Such dairy troubles as ropy milk and gassy milk may be caused by the water used for washing puposes.

METHODS OF PREVENTING CONTAMINATION OF MILK.

INDIVIDUAL COWS.—Normally the number of microörganisms found in the udder is not sufficient to be a serious source of contamination for market milk. There are, however, certain cows which have a much higher germ content than others, and where a very low count is desired in the milk it may sometimes be advisable to eliminate such cows from the herd.

CARE OF THE COW'S BODY.—In order to reduce to the minimum the contamination from the cow's body she should be kept as clean as possible. Dust should not be allowed to accumulate in her coat. It is well to keep the hair of the flank and udder clipped in order to prevent the accumulation of dust and also to facilitate the process of cleaning. The use of a damp cloth for wiping the flank and udder at milking time is a very efficient means of reducing this source of contamination. The beneficial effect of this method may be seen in the following table:

Effect of Wiping Udder and Flank with a Damp Cloth as Shown by Bacterial Counts of Milk.

Number of experiments	Date	Treatment	Bacteria per c.c.
1	Apr. 13	Not wiped	2,780
1		Wiped	530
2	Apr. 15	Not wiped	1,310
2		Wiped	310
3	Apr. 16	Not wiped	800
3		Wiped	754
4	May 28	Not wiped	1,130
4		Wiped	590

Even when considerable care is taken to clean the surface of the cow's body, there will still be some organisms which may fall into the pail at milking time. This number can be very materially lessened by reducing as far as possible the area through which dust can fall into the milk pail. This can be accomplished by the use of a milking pail with a small top.

Value of Small Top Pail in Reducing Germ Content of Milk.

Experiment	Kind of pail	Bacteria per c.c. of milk
No. 1	Open	15,500
	Small top	7,750
No. 2	Open	3,700
	Small top	1,100
No. 3	Open	30,000
	Small top	4,700

AVOID DUST IN THE ATMOSPHERE.—Many of the necessary operations of the cow stable stir up large quantities of dust and fill the air with microörganisms. It is astonishing to see how many bacteria can adhere to a small piece of hay or may be found in a gram of any of our common dairy feeds. When these materials are fed dry just previous to milking

time, the atmosphere of the stable will be completely filled with organisms which may settle into the milk while it is exposed during the process of milking. The effect of this source of contamination may be seen by the following experiments:

FIG. 77.—Some different styles of small top milking pails which are practical and efficient. (Original.)

Bacterial Content of Milk as Affected by Feeding Dry Hay and Grain.

Experiment	Date	Nature of sample	Number bacteria per c.c.
No. 1	May 4	Before feeding	350
		After feeding	1,450
No. 2	May 17	Before feeding	2,900
		After feeding	4,400
No. 3	May 18	Before feeding	4,100
		After feeding	7,200

DAIRY UTENSILS.—All utensils which are to be used in connection with milk should be so constructed that there are no cracks or crevices in which the milk can accumulate and from which it is not easily washed out. A milk pail with an open seam may be the cause of serious trouble in the dairy. The dairy utensils should be simple in construction, and so made that they can be thoroughly cleansed with ease and made of such material that they can be thoroughly sterilized either with water which is actually boiling or in steam.

THE MILKER.—No food material requires greater care and cleanliness on the part of those handling it than does milk. All persons having to do with the handling of this delicate food product should constantly keep in mind that clean hands and clothing and extreme cleanliness in every operation is very necessary if milk of good quality is to be obtained.

GROUPS OR TYPES OF MICROÖRGANISMS FOUND IN MILK AND THEIR SOURCES.

In studying the types of bacteria which are found in milk, it is convenient to arrange them in groups based upon their action on the milk and their effect upon persons consuming it. There are certain types of organisms which are very troublesome to the milk dealer but which are not injurious to the consumer. Other species which may be of little or no significance from their action upon the milk are of greatest significance from the standpoint of the consumer since most of the disease organisms which may be carried by milk have no appreciable action upon it. Still other forms are of but little importance to either the dealer or the consumer and others are troublesome to both.

GENERAL SIGNIFICANCE OF ACID-FORMING BACTERIA.—Of all the bacteria that find their way into milk, those that are able to ferment the milk sugar, producing from it different kinds and amounts of acids, find more favorable conditions for growth at ordinary temperatures, 15° to 45°, than do those belonging to other groups. Because of their greater rapidity of growth and because of the inhibiting effect of their by-products upon the other groups of bacteria, the acid types tend to predominate in milk and the specific change which they produce, the souring, is of such common occurrence that it is often looked upon as something inherent in milk.

GROUPS OF ACID-FORMING BACTERIA.*—The acid-forming bacteria that are constantly present in milk represent many kinds which differ in morphology, in cultural characteristics, and in their products of fermentation. They may be divided into four groups that vary greatly as far as their importance in the handling of milk is concerned. If milk is produced under clean conditions and is kept at temperatures ranging from 15° to 35°, the acid fermentation will be almost wholly due to a group of bacteria closely allied to one of the pathogenic forms, *Strept. pyogenes* (Rosenbach). To representatives of this group, which is of the greatest

* Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

importance in all phases of dairying, have been given various names by different investigators. The most important organism of this group is one to which the name *Bact. lactis acidi* is applied. The group undoubtedly includes a large number of organisms, all of which produce, however, a similar change in milk.

Second in importance is a group of organisms, of which the best known representatives are *B. coli communis* and *Bact. lactis aerogenes*. A large number of organisms of this group have been described and named. The most important characteristics of the representatives mentioned will, however, suffice to characterize the group. A third group is represented by *Bact. bulgaricum* and the rod-shaped organisms that have been studied especially by de Freudenreich. A fourth group includes many acid-forming cocci, some of which exhibit proteolytic properties while others do not. Organisms of the third and fourth groups exert little or no effect in the normal acid fermentation of milk, although they are constantly present in varying numbers, as can be demonstrated by appropriate means, and undoubtedly are of importance in certain phases of dairy manufacturing.

In any sample of milk the relative number of bacteria belonging to each of the first two groups is dependent upon the conditions surrounding production, especially with reference to cleanliness. The bacteria belonging to the first group come largely from the milk utensils and are also found in the dust of the barn and on the coat of the animal. The source of the second group is largely the fecal matter that gains entrance to the milk, although they are also found in the upper layers of the soil and enter the milk from the coat of the animal. The cleaner the conditions of production, the smaller will be the number of these two groups of organisms found in milk.

The manufacture of the leading type of butter and of all kinds of cheese is dependent on the action of microörganisms, hence dairy manufacturing should be classed as a true fermentation industry. In all such industries one of the factors determining the quality of the product is the type of microörganism employed to produce the desired fermentation, and the importance of insuring the presence of desirable organisms, and the exclusion of harmful kinds is well recognized.

The most important properties of organisms employed in the fermentation industries are the physiological rather than the cultural or morphological, since the quality of the product is dependent on the by-products of the fermentation. Hence in characterizing the groups of

acid-forming bacteria, the biochemistry of each group will be emphasized rather than the cultural and morphological characteristics of the members of the group.

*Characteristics of the Bact. Lactis Acidi Group.**—The organisms of this group are widely distributed in nature, as is shown by the constancy with which milk undergoes the characteristic fermentation produced by the members of the group.

The cells are oval in form, about 0.6μ to 1μ in length, and 0.5μ in diameter. The shorter cells appear nearly spherical, which, together with the fact that chains of cells often occur, has led some to classify them among the cocci and Kruse has applied the name *Strept. lacticus* to a member of the group. In milk the cells are usually in twos, the outer ends of the two cells being pointed. None of the group is motile; spores are not formed and capsules are often noted. The members of the group are Gram-positive.

The optimum temperature for growth lies between 30° and 35°, the minimum growth temperature ranging from 10° to 12°, while the maximum is 42°. They are to be classed as facultative anaerobes. The growth on all culture media is marked by its meagerness; in the absence of a fermentable carbohydrate, no growth usually occurs; peptone favors the growth even in milk. In the case of freshly isolated cultures, the growth is almost invisible, on slopes of sugar agar appearing as small discrete colonies. On sugar agar plates the colonies are small, often surrounded by a hazy zone, and always occur below the surface of the medium. In lactose-agar stab cultures growth occurs along the entire line of inoculation, but there is no surface growth. No liquefaction of gelatin occurs. In bouillon the medium is uniformly turbid or it remains clear with a slight sediment. On potato, growth is slight or is absent. Milk is usually curdled within twenty-four hours at the optimum temperature by members of the group, although some fail to curdle the milk, since the maximum amount of acid produced is not sufficient to cause this phenomenon. Still others cause curdling in the presence of small amounts of acids, in which case a rennet-like enzyme may be present. No gas is produced in the fermentation of lactose, hence the curd formed in milk is perfectly homogeneous; it shows but little tendency to shrink and to express whey. In litmus milk the color is discharged from the entire mass of medium before curdling occurs, due to the reduction of the litmus to the colorless

* Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

leuco-compound. Through the action of the oxygen of the air the litmus is slowly reoxidized and the pink layer, which immediately after curdling is but a few millimeters in depth, is slowly extended until the entire mass of curd has a uniform pink color. Saccharose, dextrose, maltose, and mannit are fermented.

The maximum amount of acid produced by organisms that are most typical of the group is determined by the composition of the medium. It is often said that the organisms causing the normal souring of milk represent a group that can grow in a strongly acid medium. This is true as far as acid salts are concerned, but free acid totally inhibits growth. In a culture medium, which contains no substance that can combine with the acid formed and thus remove it from the sphere of action, no growth or but very slight growth occurs. In sugar bouillon and in milk, the amount of acid formed is determined by the content of substances in these liquids that can combine with the acid. In milk such compounds are the casein and some of the ash constituents, especially the phosphates. In normal milk, the maximum acidity attained ranges from 0.9 to 1.25 per cent calculated as lactic acid. If the content of neutralizing compounds per unit volume is varied by concentration, dilution, or by the addition of such substances as calcium phosphate, the maximum amount of acid produced by typical cultures will be changed. In sugar bouillon the maximum acidity produced rarely exceeds 0.25 per cent.

The fermentation of lactose is usually expressed as follows:

$$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}+H_2O=4C_3H_6O_3$$

Thus 342 parts of lactose should yield 360 parts of lactic acid. The theoretical yield of lactic acid is never obtained, for the action of the organism on the carbohydrate is much more complex than is represented by the equation given. In the following table are given data obtained by a number of investigators:

Sugar content of milk Per cent	Sugar fermented Per cent	Lactic acid calculated Per cent	Lactic acid found Per cent of theoretical
4.54	0.60	0.632	89.56
4.96	0.56	0.590	98.13
4.94	0.65	0.684	97.89

These data signify that other compounds than lactic acid are formed in the fermentation of lactose by these acid-forming bacteria. Acetic acid ($CH_3.COOH$); formic acid (H.COOH); propionic acid ($C_2H_5.COOH$); traces of alcohols, aldehydes and esters have been found. The lactic acid formed is the dextro modification. It is believed that the fermentation is due to an enzyme, lactacidase, one of the intracellular enzymes that can be demonstrated only with difficulty.

Milk fermented by members of this group has a mild acid taste, an agreeable odor, and the curd can be so finely divided by agitation as to produce almost as perfect an emulsion as in raw milk. The organisms are to be classed as desirable from the stand-point of the dairy manufacturer and the fermentation produced by them may be called a true *lactic* fermentation.

*Characteristics of the B. Coli-aerogenes Group.**—This group includes a considerable variety of organisms, which differ in morphology, in cultural characteristics and undoubtedly in the character and amounts of their by-products. They are more distinctly bacilli than the members of the preceding group; are motile or non-motile; none produces spores and they are usually negative to Gram's stain. The optimum growth temperature, 35° to 40°, is somewhat higher than for the preceding group, the vegetation range being 15° to 45°. They are to be classed as facultative anaerobes.

The conditions for development are less narrow than for the *Bact. lactis acidi* group, growth occurring on all the ordinary culture media and in the absence of carbohydrates. Indol and hydrogen sulphide are often formed and nitrates are reduced. The growth is usually profuse, the colonies large and surface growth occurring in stab cultures. Gelatin is not usually liquefied.

Lactose, dextrose and saccharose are fermented, with the production of varying amounts of gas in which have been found carbon dioxide; hydrogen, methane, and free nitrogen. The maximum amount of acid produced in any culture medium is quite similar to that formed by the members of the previous group. The relative proportions between the non-volatile and volatile acids are far different, lactic acid comprising less than 30 per cent of the total acid formed, while volatile acids as acetic and formic make up the remainder. Traces of succinic acid ($C_2H_4(COOH_2)$) and alcohol have also been found. The lactic acid is of the lævo-form.

* Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

Milk is usually curdled, although some members of the group do not produce enough acid to cause curdling. Depending on the amount of gas formed, the curd may be almost perfectly homogeneous or it may be very spongy. In all cases the curd shrinks to a greater or less extent and thus becomes so firm that it is difficult or impossible to emulsify it again. The odor of the fermented milk is offensive and the taste disagreeable and sharp. The organisms of this group are to be classed as undesirable and the fermentation produced by them cannot correctly be called a lactic fermentation.

The representatives of these two great groups of acid-forming bacteria are to be found in every sample of market milk in varying proportions. Both find in milk favorable conditions for growth, and the normal souring is produced conjointly by them, each producing its own specific products, the relative amount of which is largely dependent on the number of each group that were originally introduced into the milk. The value of milk for butter and cheese is determined by the relative amount of the products of the desirable and the undesirable acid-forming bacteria.

The difference in taste and odor between milk fermented by pure cultures of *Bact. lactis acidi*, and that which has soured spontaneously emphasizes the difference in the products of the fermentations produced by the two groups of acid-forming bacteria.

*Characteristics of the Bact. Bulgaricum Group.**—The organisms of this group are to be classed as true lactic bacteria, since they produce almost exclusively lactic acid from the sugar fermented and only small quantities of other acids as formic, acetic, and propionic. They vary widely in form and size; but are usually large rods, 2 μ to 3 μ long and 0.5 μ to 0.75 μ wide. There is a tendency to form long threads. They are Gram-positive and with methylene blue often show distinct granules in the cells; with Neisser's stain the appearance of some cultures is similar to that of the diphtheria bacteria. They are non-motile and do not form spores; capsules are seldom noted. The optimum growth temperature is from 40° to 50° and the minimum is asserted to be 25°, although for many members of the group it must be much lower.

The growth on all ordinary culture media is meager or is absent; the colonies are often microscopic in size and show radiating threads. Free acids do not inhibit development andthe term *acidophilous* has been applied to the group. They grow slowly in milk, even at the optimum temperature, and curdling may not occur for several days; the curd is homogeneous

* Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

and in litmus milk reduction occurs. The maximum amount of acid varies from 1.25 to 4.0 per cent. Some members of the group produce dextro-, others lævo-acid, and it is claimed that racemic acid is formed in some cases. The curd can be easily broken by agitation, and through the solvent action of the acid is partially dissolved. The organisms do not liquefy gelatin, but the casein of milk is partially changed into soluble decomposition products, as was first shown by de Freudenreich, and later confirmed by Hastings.

It has been supposed by many that this group was confined to and characteristic of certain of the fermented milks, especially those of eastern Europe and western Asia, such as Yogurt and Matzoon. The work of de Freudenreich has demonstrated their presence in Switzerland, and more recently, Hastings has shown that similar organisms are constantly present in milk and other dairy products in this country. They can be demonstrated by placing a sample of milk in a corked bottle, and incubating at 37°. The acidity of the milk increases rapidly at first, due to the growth of the members of the two previous groups. These ordinary acid-forming organisms are soon inhibited by the appearance of free acid, but the acidity of the milk nevertheless continues to increase slowly, and with this continued increase a change in flora is noted, the short, plump bacilli ceasing to predominate and long slender rods constantly increasing in numbers. The source of this group is undoubtedly the alimentary tract of the animal.

*Characteristics of the Coccus Group.**—This group is well represented by the bacteria which form the characteristic flora of the udder. They vary greatly in size and in other properties. They retain Gram's stain; many are chromogenic, the color ranging from a white to a deep orange. They grow slowly on all ordinary culture media, but the growth is not necessarily meager. Generally they are aerobic, although many grow under anaerobic conditions. Gelatin may be liquefied or not. Milk may or may not be curdled, the curd often resembling that formed by rennet-like enzymes. They produce no lactic acid, but only acetic, propionic, butyric and caproic acids, and hence cannot be classed as lactic bacteria.

Bacteria Having No Appreciable Effect on Milk.—This group is made up of many different forms. They produce no changes which can be detected either by the eye or the taste. They do not develop very rapidly in milk, and some species gradually disappear while others in-

*Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

crease in numbers. Many of the organisms in this group are chromogenic, orange and lemon yellows being among the more common forms. They are mostly cocci and do not liquefy gelatin. From the standpoint of the commercial milkman these organisms are of little significance and this is probably also true from the standpoint of the consumer.

THE CASEIN-DIGESTING OR PEPTONIZING BACTERIA.—These organisms digest the casein either with or without coagulation. Many of them coagulate the casein with an alkaline reaction. They liquefy gelatin. Most of the organisms of this group are rods of various shapes and sizes, some of them being the largest rods found in milk. Some are motile and some non-motile. Some representatives of this group produce little or no odor, but many of the species develop very strong putrefactive odors. Barny or cowy odors or other off-flavors sometimes found in milk and dairy products are caused by the action of this type of organisms. They are associated with filth and their presence in milk indicates unsanitary conditions of production or handling.

PATHOGENIC ORGANISMS.—This group of organisms produces no changes in the milk which would indicate their presence. Some of them do not even develop in milk, as is the case with the *Bact. tuberculosis* Others, as the diphtheria bacteria and typhoid fever bacilli, may grow in milk with great rapidity. This group also contains certain species which produce diarrhoeal disorders, especially in infants and young children. Some of them are probably organisms which are also included in the peptonizing group of organisms. The specific pathogenic organisms, possibly with the exception of *Bact. tuberculosis*, get into milk, either directly or indirectly, from human patients suffering with the particular disease.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF MICROÖRGANISMS IN MILK.—The number of microörganisms found in fresh milk shows its bacterial condition at that time, but it gives little idea of the organisms which may be found in the same milk at later periods. There are many factors to be considered if we wish to study the development of the various types of organisms which get into ordinary milk. These factors may be considered briefly under the following heads:

INITIAL CONTAMINATION.—Fresh milk varies widely in the number of organisms which it contains as a result of the conditions under which it

has been produced. There are differences not only in the numbers of organisms but also in the species which may be found in different samples of fresh milk. Both of these factors are important in the later changes which may take place. The effect of numerical initial contamination may be seen in the following tables where milk starting out with different numbers of organisms was kept under similar conditions until coagulation. Plate cultures made from these three samples show the relative development of the number of organisms.

Effect of Initial Contamination on Development of Bacteria and Keeping Quality of Milk.

Milk Having Moderately High Initial Contamination.

Bacteria per c.c. in fresh milk	Bacteria 12 hours	Bacteria 36 hours	Hours to curdling
187,000	432,000	633,500,000	45

Milk Having Moderate Initial Contamination.

Bacteria per c.c. in fresh milk	Bacteria 12 hours	Bacteria 36 hours	Hours to curdling
3,000	14,000	149,650,000	99

Milk Having Small Initial Contamination.

Bacteria per c.c. in fresh milk	Bacteria 12 hours	Bacteria 36 hours	Hours to curdling
325	1,712	10,125,000	121

These samples were all kept at a constant temperature of 21° and the difference in the curdling time can therefore be fairly attributed to the difference in the initial contamination of the three samples. All three of the samples showed a normal development of the lactic

organisms, which constituted over 99 per cent of the total organisms present at the time of curdling. While this may be considered as showing the normal effect of the original contamination upon the milk, it is well to bear in mind the fact that there are many apparent exceptions due to some particular type of organism predominating and interfering with the normal development of the lactic types.

STRAINING.—The straining of milk is one of the most common operations in connection with its handling and is considered by most dairymen as one of the most essential from the standpoint of the quality of the milk. If milk is strained through cheese cloth or wire gauze much of the insoluble dirt can be removed. This has led to the general belief that straining improves the sanitary and keeping qualities of the milk.

The effect of straining on removal of insoluble dirt is shown by the following results of tests:

Dirt Removed by Passing Milk through Two Thicknesses of Fine Cloth.

(Weight of insoluble dirt given in milligrams per liter of milk.)

Experiment	Before straining	After straining	Per cent removed
No. 1	8.95	4.70	47.5
No. 2	5.55	4.95	10.8
No. 3	5.15	2.95	42.7
No. 4	2.45	0.20	91.8
No. 5	5.05	3.10	38.6

It may be noticed that even after straining the milk contained appreciable quantities of insoluble dirt which had passed through the strainer cloth. The difference in per cent of dirt removed in different samples is due to the nature of the dirt itself. The coarser the dirt the greater the portion that will be removed by straining.

It is not true, however, that the keeping quality is necessarily improved by the simple process of straining. It depends largely upon the condition of the milk and the nature of the strainer. Not infrequently passing milk through a strainer not only fails to improve its keeping quality but actually injures it. This has been shown by a number of investigators. The effect of straining upon the germ content may be seen in the following

figures where the milk was passed through a strainer composed of three thicknesses of fine cheese cloth supported by wire gauze.

Effect of Straining Upon Bacterial Content of Milk.

Experiment	Before straining Bacteria per c.c.	After straining Bacteria per c.c.
No. 1	3,600	3,600
No. 2	7,400	6,900
No. 3	12,800	10,500
No. 4	8,800	11,375
No. 5	8,800	2,700

The effect of straining upon the keeping quality is shown in the following experiments where the milk was strained through the same form of strainer mentioned above and the samples kept at constant temperature of 21° until coagulation.

	Not strained Hours to coagulation	Strained Hours to coagulation
Experiment No. 1	42	42
Experiment No. 2	57	55
Experiment No. 3	35	35
Experiment No. 4	89	54
Experiment No. 5	50	50

It will be seen that in no case was the keeping quality of these samples increased by the straining process while in some cases it was materially injured.

Cotton filters are more efficient than cheese cloth and in some cases the keeping quality of the milk may be improved by this process.

AERATION.—This is the process of exposing the milk to the atmosphere by allowing it to run over the surface of the aerator in a very fine film.

If milk has been produced under such conditions that it has absorbed foreign odors, this process may be of value in getting rid of the absorbed odors, but from the bacterial standpoint the process of aerating is not desirable, since it gives one more opportunity for the milk to become contaminated with organisms from the atmosphere and from the aerator itself. It is possible to aerate milk under such conditions that the germ content will not be increased, but if aeration takes place in the cow stable or other place where the atmosphere contains dust the number of organisms will be greater after aeration than before, the amount of increase being proportional to the sanitary conditions under which the aeration is done. It is even possible that the milk may absorb foreign odors during the process of aeration and be of poorer quality than it was before. It is thought by many that the process of aeration is necessary in order to get rid of the so-called animal odors commonly found in milk. These odors are, however, not normal to the milk but are absorbed from the foul air in the stables or other sources. This is shown by the fact that some of the very finest quality of certified milk is bottled while still containing the animal heat with the least possible exposure to the air, tightly sealed at once and plunged into ice water. Such milk contains no suggestion of animal odor. Aeration may be of value in removing undesirable odors from milk which is not produced under good sanitary conditions, if done in an atmosphere free from all dust and odors, but it is not necessary for milk of good quality. The common belief that aeration is valuable is probably due to the fact that most aerators are coolers as well, and the beneficial results are due to the cooling and not the aeration.

CENTRIFUGAL SEPARATION.—It is a common practice in some dairies to pass the milk through a centrifugal separator to remove any dirt which it may contain. This operation is effective for the removal of much of the insoluble dirt which may be in the milk, but it is of very doubtful value from the standpoint of the bacterial content and the keeping quality of the milk. In spite of the fact that the separator slime is very rich in bacteria, the milk and cream as they come from the separator will normally show larger bacterial counts in agar and gelatin plates than will the milk before it enters the separator. The usual effect upon the germ content of passing milk through a separator may be seen in the following experiments:

Influence of Passing Milk through a Centrifugal Separator upon the Germ Content of the Milk and Cream.

	Bacteria in whole milk	Bacteria in skim milk	Bacteria in cream
Sample No. 1.....	39,000	69,000	75,000
Sample No. 2.....	44,000	76,000	790,000
Sample No. 3.....	56,000	75,000	820,000
Sample No. 4.....	200,000	336,000	330,000

There is usually a marked increase in the number of bacteria which will develop in plate cultures both from the skim milk and the cream in excess of the number found in the whole milk. This does not mean that there is an actual increase in individual bacteria in these samples due to the action of the separator. What it does mean is that the small clusters or groups of organisms, as they exist in the whole milk are thrown apart by the force of the separator and therefore develop individual colonies in the plate cultures. The effect of this breaking up of the clusters of bacteria in the milk is also injurious to its keeping qualities. This is probably due to the fact that the multiplication of the organisms is greater where they exist in the milk as individuals than it would be had they remained in their original clusters. So marked is this injurious effect upon the keeping quality of the milk that in some cases the commercial milk plants have been obliged to give up the practice of clarifying milk by means of the centrifugal separator.

TEMPERATURE.—The temperature at which milk is kept is one of the most important factors determining the development of its microbial content. Every one at all familiar with milk knows that it spoils very quickly if allowed to stand at warm temperatures. If, however, the milk is held at temperatures of 10° or lower, the keeping quality of the milk is greatly increased. Most of the ordinary species of organisms which gain entrance to milk do not grow rapidly at temperatures of 10° or lower. There are, however, certain species which will grow with considerable rapidity at temperatures below 10°, especially some of the spore-bearing non-acid forms. If the temperature of the milk is allowed to rise above 10°, the growth of the common species increases rapidly. The influence of temperature upon the development of bacteria may be seen in the fol-

lowing experiment where a given lot of milk was thoroughly mixed and divided into six portions, which were then held at the temperatures indicated for twelve hours, at the end of which time they were plated for the total germ content.

Effect of Different Temperatures upon the Development of Bacteria in Milk.

Temperature maintained for 12 hours	Bacteria per c.c. at end of 12 hours	Hours to curdling at 21°
4.5°	4,000	75
7°	9,000	75
10°	18,000	72
12.5°	38,000	49
15.5°	453,000	43
21°	8,800,000	52
26.5°	55,300,000	28

The fresh milk showed a count of 5,000 per c.c. and curdled in fifty-two hours at a temperature of 21°. The curdling time of these samples was determined by placing them at a constant temperature of 21° at the close of the twelve-hour period and holding them at this temperature until coagulation took place. The difference in time of curdling therefore is due to the maintenance of the special temperature for 12 hours only and not for the entire period up to the time of curdling.

PASTEURIZATION.—The term pasteurization is used to designate the process of heating milk to a temperature sufficient to destroy a portion of the bacteria and then cooling it to a temperature which will prevent the rapid development of the organisms that are left. The temperatures commonly used for this purpose vary from 60° to 85°. The length of time the milk is exposed to the high temperature may also vary from a few seconds to thirty minutes, depending upon the method employed. The two chief purposes for the pasteurization of milk are to increase its keeping quality and to destroy any pathogenic organisms which the milk may contain. The purpose for which the pasteurization is done will determine the method used. In commercial pasteurization, where the chief purpose is to destroy the lactic organisms and thus improve

the keeping quality of the milk, the method used is that known as the continuous or instantaneous method, where the milk is subjected to a high temperature for a few seconds only and then cooled. In this method of pasteurization varying degrees of efficiency are obtained, depending upon a number of factors, chiefly the bacterial condition of the milk to be pasteurized, the degree of heat and the length of the exposure and the temperature to which the milk is cooled. With all these factors to be considered it is not surprising that the germ content in the pasteurized milk varies widely. In the instantaneous method of pasteurization, the lactic organisms are killed first, while any spores which are present are allowed to pass through the machine and remain in the milk. These spores may result in the rapid development of certain putrefactive types of organisms in the pasteurized milk, until its bacterial condition at the end of a few hours may be worse than before pasteurization. If, however, the milk was of reasonably good quality, the process carefully done and the milk properly cooled, the bacterial quality of the milk may be materially improved as a result of the pasteurization. This method of pasteurization cannot be depended upon to kill all of the disease organisms which may be in the milk.

Where the chief purpose of pasteurization is to render the milk free from disease-producing organisms, the so-called holding method is employed. This consists in raising the temperature of the milk to about 60° and holding it at this temperature for a period of thirty minutes. If this method is properly done, all of the organisms except certain spore forms should be killed and the milk at the end of the pasteurizing process contain but few organisms compared with its original germ content.

It is believed by many that heating milk to a high temperature hastens the growth of any organisms which may remain in it or afterward gain entrance. Others maintain that this is not true. The weight of evidence, however, seems to indicate that it is a fact. This being the case it is evident that extreme care should be taken with pasteurized milk to prevent subsequent contamination and also the development of any organism which may not have been killed by the pasteurizing process.

The Use of Chemicals.—The addition of certain chemicals to milk will retard the growth of bacteria. The chemicals most commonly used for this purpose are borax and formalin. While the keeping quality of milk may be materially increased by the use of such chemicals, their

use has been opposed by health authorities and is contrary to the Pure Food Laws. If milk is handled with any degree of care, there should be no need for the use of chemical preservatives. They are simply a means of counteracting the unsanitary conditions of the production and handling. The same results can be obtained by cleanliness in the production of the milk and the use of low temperatures for preventing the contamination and subsequent growth of the bacteria in the milk. The developments in the production of clean milk of the past few years have illustrated very clearly that the use of chemical preservatives is not necessary.

Normal Development of Microörganisms in Milk.

The flora of any particular sample of fresh milk is determined by the conditions under which it is produced. In stables where extreme cleanliness is practised the flora may be practically limited to those species which occur in the udder of the cows, but under ordinary conditions there will be in addition to the normal udder types such others as may occur in the dust and atmosphere of the stables. Market milk, therefore, when first obtained from the cow ordinarily contains a mixed flora, the different types present depending upon the sanitary conditions under which the milk is produced.

The future development of this initial flora is largely dependent upon the temperature at which the milk is kept. If the milk is held at temperatures between 10° and 21° there will result what may be considered as the normal development of milk fermentations. These changes may be divided for convenience into four periods or stages.

First Stage.—Germicidal Period.—It has been shown by a number of investigators that instead of an increase in the numbers of bacteria in fresh milk there is normally a decrease in the number during the first few hours after its production. The rapidity of this increase and the length of time over which it extends seem to be determined largely by the temperature at which the milk is kept. The higher the temperature the more rapidly the number of organisms decreases and the more quickly the end of the germicidal period is reached. If the temperatures are kept fairly low the rate of decrease is much slower but the decline will extend over a considerably longer period. This is shown by the following examples given by Hunziker.

Table Showing the Germicidal Action in Cows' Milk.

Name of cow	Cow warm	Temp.* of milk	After 3 hours	After 6 hours	After 9 hours	After 12 hours	After 15 hours	After 24 hours	After 32 hours	After 48 hours
May	1,212	40°	1,080	1,220	1,040	1,020	1,120	1,360	1,040	400
		55°	1,260	1,400	1,500	1,460	1,360	1,080	3,500	17,740
		70°	1,000	1,340	1,860	3,460	3,460	64,000	800,000	
Ida	5,120	40°	4,400	4,260	3,620	3,700	3,900	4,000	3,900	3,840
		55°	3,900	3,460	2,980	2,800	2,920	3,260	3,220	3,240
		70°	3,560	2,120	1,880	1,880	1,240	4,960	58,400	
Julia	1,345	40°	1,170	1,070	1,120	870	1,120	990	1,060	1,080
		55°	1,080	990	980	1,400	1,080	1,080	3,110	68,800
		70°	1,000	1,000	1,200	5,600	17,720	1,600,000		

*Fahrenheit.

The exact reason for this decline is at present not well understood. Some investigators believe that milk possesses a certain germicidal action or property which results in the destruction of a portion of the organisms found in the milk at the outset.

The work of other investigators seems to show that the so-called germicidal action is felt by certain species and not by others as is indicated by the following sample.

Age of milk	Total bacteria	Acid bacteria	Per cent acid bacteria	Liquefying bacteria
Fresh	12,550	1,250	10	200
3 hours	12,250	2,000	16	200
6 hours	19,650	2,250	23	800
9 hours	56,900	20,250	36	550
12 hours	114,250	68,400	60	1,900

This would seem to indicate that the decrease in number is due not so much to a definite germicidal property possessed by the milk as to the gradual dying out of certain species which for some reason do not find the milk a suitable environment for development, while other types, finding the milk suitable to their needs, develop uniformly from the start.

SECOND STAGE.—PERIOD FROM END OF GERMICIDAL ACTION TO TIME OF CURDLING.—The period following immediately after the germicidal action is characterized by the rapid development of the lactic organisms. Under normal conditions this group develops much more rapidly than any other type. Not only do they increase rapidly in actual numbers but their percentage also rises rapidly. There may be a continual increase in numbers in the other species, but their growth is much less rapid than that of the *Bact. lactis acidi* type. As this period advances certain of the miscellaneous types may cease to grow entirely. During this time the gas-producing acid organisms of the *B. coli* and *Bact. lactis aerogenes* type may develop more or less rapidly, but if the milk is held at temperatures not much above 20°, the *Bact. lactis acidi* type will develop much more rapidly, so that by the time the milk becomes sour and curdles, this type will constitute 99 per cent approximately of the total number in the milk. From the standpoint of the milk consumer milk ceases to be of value when the end of this period is reached, but there are further developments which are of importance in certain lines of dairy manufactures, notably cheese making.

THIRD STAGE.—PERIOD FROM TIME OF CURDLING UNTIL ACIDITY IS NEUTRALIZED.—At the time milk curdles it contains enormous numbers of the lactic bacteria. The number usually runs into the millions and may be even higher than one thousand million per c.c. By the time the coagulation takes place the acidity of the milk is so high that the growth of the lactic organisms is checked and from this time on their number decreases with more or less rapidity.

During the period following the curdling certain other types of organisms which have existed in the milk during the earlier stages now begin to grow. The organisms especially important in this stage are *Oidium lactis*, certain species of molds, and yeasts. These organisms are able to grow in a highly acid medium, and as a result of their development the acid is decreased until the milk finally presents a neutral or alkaline condition resulting from the decomposition of the proteins in the milk.

FOURTH STAGE.—FINAL DECOMPOSITION CHANGES.—The reduction of the acidity affords favorable conditions for the growth of certain types of organisms which have remained in the milk during the earlier stages but have been practically dormant. In this fourth stage the conditions are suitable for the growth of the liquefying and peptonizing bacteria

and they now grow rapidly, causing the decomposition of the casein. The changes resulting from this type of organisms are of special significance in cheese making and are discussed more fully in another chapter.

Abnormal Fermentations in Milk.

Gassy Fermentation.—It frequently happens that instead of the normally rapid development of the *Bact. lactis acidi* type of organisms in the milk, other acid producers develop rapidly, with the production of more or less gas. The organisms most prominent in this type of fermentation are the *B. coli communis* and the *Bact. lactis aerogenes* types. This group of organisms contains a number of varieties, some of which produce little or no gas while others develop large amounts. Their action in milk is usually accompanied by disagreeable odors and flavors. They grow readily in the presence of air and therefore develop abundant colonies on the surface of plate cultures. This distinguishes the members of this group quite clearly from those of the true lactic group which grow chiefly below the surface of the medium. The members of this group do not form spores, but certain varieties are quite resistant to heat and will oft-times survive pasteurizing temperatures which completely destroy the *Bact. lactis acidi* group. They grow most rapidly at high temperatures between 20° and 37°.

Fig. 78.—Ropy cream lifted with a fork. (*After Ward.*)

Sweet Curdling Fermentation.—This phenomenon is caused by a variety of organisms which cause the milk to coagulate without the production of acid. The coagulation is brought about by a rennet-like enzyme produced by this type of bacteria. The resulting milk is either neutral or. alkaline in reaction. Usually the coagulation of the milk is followed by the digestion of the casein as a result of another enzyme which is also produced by these bacteria. The coagulation caused by these organisms is slower than in the case of the acid formers and the curd is usually soft and mushy as compared with the curd formed in the normal acid fermentation. The members of this group get into the milk from and along with dust and dirt associated with

unsanitary conditions. Some of the species produce spores and are not killed by the ordinary methods of pasteurization. This fact accounts for the occurrence of sweet curdling of pasteurized milk. This group of organisms is unable to develop rapidly in the presence of the lactic bacteria and for this reason we do not commonly get the sweet curdling of raw milk. The presence of these organisms is evidence of unsanitary conditions. Frequently they develop very disagreeable flavors in the milk.

ROPY OR SLIMY FERMENTATION.—One of the most common milk infections causing trouble to the milk dealer is that which causes a ropy

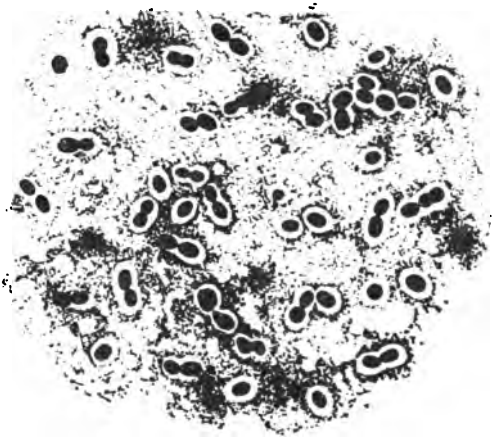


FIG. 79.—*Bacillus lactis viscosus* from a milk culture. (*After Ward*)

or slimy fermentation of milk. This is sometimes spoken of as stringy milk (Fig. 78). Several species of organisms are capable of producing this condition. These organisms grow most freely in the presence of an abundant supply of oxygen and for this reason the cream usually becomes slimy before any changes are apparent in the underlying layers of milk. *B. lactis viscosus* is perhaps the most common species in this group. The slimy condition in the milk is supposed to be the result of a very viscid capsule surrounding these organisms (Fig. 79). Representatives of this group are quite resistant to heat and frequently pass uninjured through the methods of cleansing and scalding used under ordinary dairy condi-

tions. Because of this, dairy utensils once infected become a constant source of infection. This trouble can be effectively stopped by a thorough scalding of all utensils coming in contact with the milk.

BITTER FERMENTATION.—Bitter flavors in milk may be the result of bacterial changes after the milk has been drawn, or due to certain strong feeds which the cows have consumed. If the cows are allowed to eat certain kinds of vegetation, such as "rag weed" and certain other plants, they may impart a bitter taste to the milk, in which case the abnormal flavor will be apparent when the milk is fresh and usually becomes less pronounced as the milk becomes older, because of the volatile nature of the substances causing the bitterness. Most of the cases of bitter milk and cream, however, are due to the growth of certain types of bacteria in which case the bitterness increases in intensity with the age of the milk. Some of the species capable of producing bitter milk grow at quite low temperatures, which accounts for the fact that the most trouble with bitter flavors is found in milk and cream which has been held at low temperatures for some time.

ALCOHOLIC FERMENTATION.—The bacteria as a group are not able to act on the milk sugar and produce alcohol, but it sometimes happens that yeasts get into the milk in sufficient numbers to ferment the milk sugar, producing appreciable amounts of alcohol. To the milk handler this trouble is not usually serious but the action of the yeasts is frequently of considerable importance in the cheese industry.

OTHER FERMENTATIONS.—It frequently happens that a considerable variety of disagreeable flavors and odors develop in milk. These may be due to the direct absorption of odors from the foul stable atmosphere or strong smelling feeds, such as silage; or they may be, and no doubt frequently are, the result of the growth of certain types of bacteria which have entered the milk from dirty surroundings. The growth of some of these organisms is frequently the cause of the so-called cowy and stable odors and flavors.

COMMERCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF MICROÖRGANISMS IN MILK.

RELATION OF DIRT CONTAMINATION TO GERM CONTENT.—To the commercial milkman bacteria are of importance only as they influence the length of time the milk will keep in a salable condition. The consumers

do not want milk that is sour or has unpleasant flavors and odors. In order to sell his milk, therefore, the milkman must avoid the presence of these undesirable conditions, and in proportion as he recognizes the relation between germ life and the quality of his product, will he pay attention to the presence and development of microörganisms in his milk. In like manner, the presence or absence of dirt contamination is important from the commercial standpoint since it bears a relation to the bacterial count, and, therefore, affects the keeping properties of the milk. Under normal conditions there is a fairly direct relation between the amount of visible or insoluble dirt and the number of bacteria found in any given lot of fresh milk. This relation may be shown by the following samples taken from four different milk producers:

Producer	Number of samples	Average mg. dry dirt per liter	Average number bacteria per c.c.	Average hours to time of curdling
A.....	5	51.5	115,000	175
B.....	16	58.8	273,600	78
C.....	21	70.0	428,600	75
D.....	17	71.9	949,400	68

This relation does not always hold for the reason that a gram of one kind of dirt may contain infinitely more organisms than an equal amount of some other kind. The difference in the solubility of various forms of dirt always causes apparent discrepancies in this normal relation. In the majority of cases, however, the relation shown in the above examples will hold reasonably true in the case of fresh milk. There is also a general relation between the number of bacteria in fresh milk and the length of time it will keep before souring and curdling. In this case the relation is in inverse ratio, the smaller the initial contamination, the longer the keeping time, and vice versa. This relation is also shown in the table given above. There are many irregularities, however, in this relation because of differences in the flora of fresh milk. It may frequently happen that a sample of milk containing a relatively high number of organisms will not sour as quickly as another sample with a smaller original germ content. The associative action of the different species

of organisms is an important factor here. In making comparisons of this sort, it is, of course, necessary that the different samples be held at the same temperatures.

Milk as a Carrier of Disease-producing Organisms.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to discuss in detail the diseases which may be carried by milk, but a chapter on bacteriology of milk would be incomplete without a brief discussion of this important subject.

From the standpoint of their relation to the health of the consumer the microörganisms in milk may be divided into three groups.

Those Microörganisms Which are Beneficial and Detrimental to Health.—*Acid Forms.*—The preservative properties of sour milk have been known since very ancient times. Its use as a preservative for meat, eggs and other perishable food products demonstrates the value of sour milk as a means of preventing decomposition. It has also been known for a long time that sour milk has a certain therapeutic value because of the action of the lactic bacteria in preventing harmful fermentations in the digestive tract. More recently the work of Metchnikoff has shown the usefulness of sour milk both for the treatment and prevention of intestinal disorders by preventing the development of the putrefactive bacteria in the digestive tract. In view of the value of sour milk for preventing certain forms of disease and its inhibiting action on certain undesirable organisms the *Bact. lactis acidi* type of bacteria must be regarded as beneficial organisms, and from the standpoint of the health of the consumer their presence in the milk is to be welcomed rather than discouraged. As the value of sour milk drinks becomes better known the importance of this group of milk bacteria will be more fully recognized

Neutral Forms.—In ordinary milk there is a large class of bacteria which, so far as known, have no appreciable effect either upon the composition of the milk or the health of the persons consuming it. This group includes a number of species, many of them being coccus forms, some of them appearing in plate cultures as chromogenic colonies. They grow more or less freely in milk, depending upon the conditions, but they are usually held in check by the acid-forming bacteria and do not constitute a very important part of the flora of normal milk. They are, therefore, of little significance from the practical standpoint except as they indicate the conditions under which the milk has been produced and handled (p. 312).

Injurious Organisms.—The diseases which may be carried by milk are of two classes.

Epidemic Diseases.—The human diseases most commonly carried by milk are typhoid fever, diphtheria and scarlet fever and occasionally other diseases such as cholera and foot-and-mouth disease. The first three are by far the most important of milk-borne diseases. The outbreaks of typhoid fever which are traceable to milk occur most frequently. There is a large accumulation of data showing the occurrence of epidemics caused by infected milk. An epidemic caused by the milk supply has certain characteristics which distinguish it from epidemics resulting from other causes. A considerable number of cases of the particular disease will appear almost simultaneously and will be distributed along some particular milk route. Usually the epidemic stops as suddenly as it began except for a few secondary cases contracted from those first taken. The source of the disease organisms is a human patient suffering from the disease. The infection of the milk may be direct, as when a sick person handles the milk, or it may be indirect as when a person caring for a patient also works about the milk. In other cases it may be caused by contamination of the water used in washing the utensils or by cows wading in water of infected streams and getting the organisms on their body whence they fall into the milk pail at milking time. Unfortunately the specific organisms of these diseases grow readily in milk and a small infection is all that is necessary to render the milk dangerous by the time it reaches the consumer. The return of milk bottles from the sick room sometimes is the means of infecting the milk supply.

Non-epidemic Diseases.—There is another class of diseases which may be carried by milk which are not characterized by a sudden outbreak, and for this reason are not so readily recognized as being associated with the milk supply. One of these diseases, namely tuberculosis, is caused by a specific, well-known organism, *Bact. tuberculosis*, which may get into the milk from the udder of a tuberculous cow or by the organisms which have been given off from the digestive tract of the animal becoming scattered about the stable and finally getting into the milk with particles of dust and filth. In some cases the milk may become infected by persons having the disease being permitted to handle the milk. Fortunately for mankind *Bact. tuberculosis* does not multiply in milk.

Regarding the danger of contracting tuberculosis from the use of

milk there is at present much difference of opinion, but the consensus of opinion at the present time seems to be that there may not be very

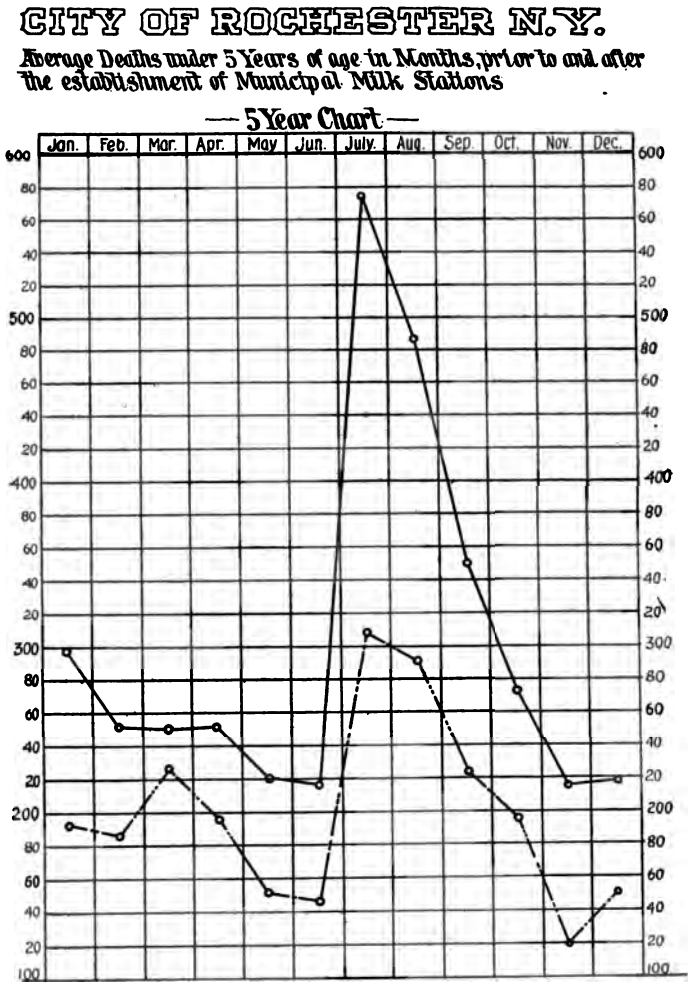


FIG. 80.

great danger for healthy adults, but that a considerable percentage of the cases of tuberculosis of children may be traced to infection from the milk supply.

There is another class of disorders not so well defined as the above but which are nevertheless of great importance from the standpoint of public health, especially of young children and also to some extent of adults. This group includes such disorders as infantile diarrhoea, summer complaint, cholera infantum and other disorders of the digestive tract. The organisms producing these troubles doubtless belong to the group of putrefactive bacteria which come from filth. Some of the gas producers and some of the peptonizers are probably responsible for these troubles. Shiga isolated from a large number of cases of infant diarrhœa a bacterium which he named *Bact. dysenteriæ*, but in general the specific organisms responsible for these intestinal troubles are not well known. Their importance, however, is shown by the relation of the germ content of milk to infant mortality.

Bacteriological Analysis of Milk.

The development of our knowledge of the relation of bacteria to the wholesomeness of foods has led to the study of a bacterial content of milk as a means of determining its wholesomeness. The methods used for this purpose have followed quite closely those of the water bacteriologists.

Plating Method.—The early workers in milk bacteriology attempted to determine only the number of organisms in the milk. This was done by plating in nutrient agar. From the results of this analysis they attempted to judge the sanitary quality of the milk. By this method the number of colonies developing in the plates is assumed to represent the germ content of the milk. It should be borne in mind that such counts are only approximate and always less than the actual number of organisms in the given sample of milk. Even if the best methods are employed it is not possible to determine the exact number of bacteria in any lot of milk.

The Direct Microscopic Method.—The plating method is expensive because of the large amount of time and materials needed. It is not possible for one person to handle a large number of samples at one time. In routine work in the city laboratories this labor has been a serious drawback to this method. In order to decrease the labor and give greater possibilities to the work Stewart devised a method by which the bacterial condition of milk can be studied by direct microscopic examination. His purpose was to determine only the species present, but later Slack developed the method so that it is now used in some cities for determining the approximate numbers and at the same time the general species present in a given sample of milk.

Leucocytes.—The microscopic examination of milk sediment revealed the fact that freqently a sample would be found which showed the presence of leucocytes in greater or less numbers. The presence of these cells was regarded as important because

it was assumed that they showed the presence of inflammation and pus formation in the udders of the cows producing the milk.

Several methods have been used for determining the leucocyte content of milk. "The Smear Sediment" and "Blood Counter" are methods which more strictly belong to laboratory practices and will not be considered in this place.

Bacteriological Milk Standards.

The relation of the bacterial content of milk to its wholesomeness has led to the adoption of certain standards by the boards of health in our cities. These standards recognize the fact that the germ content of milk in the large cities is greater than in the smaller ones because of the greater distance from which it is shipped and its age on arrival in the city. New York City in 1900 adopted a maximum limit of 1,000,000 per c.c. Later Boston established a limit of 500,000. Chicago's limits are 1,000,000 from May to September, inclusive, and 500,000 from October to April, inclusive. Rochester's standard is 100,000. Other cities have similar standards.

Stokes' standard for the number of leucocytes permissible in normal milk was 5 per field of the 1/12 objective in his smeared sediment preparation. Bergey found so many samples running above this number that he made the limit 10 cells per field and felt that no milk containing more than this number should be used for food. Later Slack raised the limit to 50 cells per field. The reason for changing the standard was due to the larger numbers found as a result of improved methods but more especially to the discovery that milk from apparently healthy cows normally contains leucocytes in excess of the first standards set.

It is held by some that a numerical standard is of little value since the actual number of organisms present in a given lot of milk may not be a correct measure of its wholesomeness. For this reason some cities pay little attention to the numbers of bacteria present but base their standards wholly on the species. and the quality of the milk is judged on the presence and numbers of streptococci, *B. coli*, leucocytes, sediment. Milk is passed or condemned on the basis of any one or combination of these conditions.

In recent years there has been a tendency to combine these two standards using the total germ content as a measure of the care the milk has had and the presence or absence of certain groups or species as an indication of the occurrence of pathological conditions in the cows producing the milk. The practice in most city laboratories now is to make

use of both the numbers and the species present in determining the quality of the milk supply.

VALUE OF BACTERIOLOGICAL MILK STANDARDS AND ANALYSES.

Regarding the value of bacteriological standards for milk there is still some difference of opinion among milk bacteriologists. The germ content of any lot of milk is largely dependent upon three factors: the number of organisms getting into the fresh milk; the temperature at which it is kept; the age of the milk when analysis is made.

The high bacterial count in any lot of milk may be the result of any one of these conditions or a combination of them. A high count means that there has been carelessness either in the production, resulting in high initial contamination, or in the subsequent handling permitting a rapid multiplication of the organisms, or that the milk is old.

On the other hand milk with a low germ content can be obtained only where the original contamination is small and it has been held at low temperatures. A low count, therefore, means care both in the production and later handling of the milk.

While the germ content may be regarded as a general index to the care the milk has received, it may not all indicate its wholesomeness. A high count may be the result of the rapid growth of the lactic bacteria, in which case the milk may be perfectly safe and wholesome. On the other hand the count may be quite small but contain pathogenic species. The bacteria count is valuable as showing the sanitary conditions of production and handling, but much care should be used in the interpretation of such results. In some ways a direct microscopic examination of the milk sediment is much more satisfactory. The skilled analyst can recognize certain types and species which may indicate the sanitary quality of the milk. With sufficient experience one can recognize streptococci, *B. subtilis*, organisms of the *B. coli* type and some of the putrefactive species and leucocytes. The presence and abundance of one or more of these groups may indicate the nature of the original contamination and the existence of diseases in the udders of cows. If rightly interpreted the information thus obtained is of much value. The weakness of this method lies in the fact that it is not always possible to recognize the above types of organisms. In a smear preparation it is not possible to differentiate between pathogenic and non-pathogenic streptococci or between

B. coli and certain other types. The presence of unusual numbers of streptococci and pus cells may indicate the existence of disease in the cows and when this condition is found in the city milk it is possible to trace it back to the farm and locate the diseased cow and prevent her milk from being used for human consumption.

The tendency at present is to combine the quantitative and qualitative analyses and the results thus obtained in the hands of the careful worker are of much practical value in controlling the quality of the city's milk supply.

CHAPTER II.*

THE RELATION OF MICROÖRGANISMS TO BUTTER.

Butter is the fat of milk that has been largely freed from the other constituents of milk by the processes of creaming and churning. If milk is allowed to stand, the fat, which is in the form of minute globules, accumulates in the upper layers of the milk because its specific gravity is much lower than that of milk serum. In modern practice the fat is concentrated in a portion of the milk by passing the milk through a cream separator. In the rapidly revolving bowl of the separator the centrifugal force exerted is many times greater than that of gravity and the fat is rapidly and efficiently removed. The cream, which is obtained by these methods, contains varying amounts of fat which is further concentrated, by subjecting it to agitation in the churning process. The globules of fat cohere to form larger and larger masses until the entire amount of fat is brought into a single mass, the butter.

Types of Butter.

Sweet-cream Butter.—If little or no increase in the acidity of the milk or cream develops, previous to churning, the butter will have certain marked characteristics and is called *sweet-cream* butter. It is especially characterized by its low flavor, since it has only the flavor of the fat of milk which is not marked. This is usually known as the *primary* flavor of butter. Sweet-cream butter is also marked by the rapidity with which it undergoes decomposition changes, especially when it is made from raw cream.

Sour-cream Butter.—If the cream is allowed to undergo the acid fermentation, the butter will differ markedly both in degree and kind of flavor from that prepared from sweet cream, and as a rule its keeping qualities are much better than those of sweet-cream butter. This type of butter is made throughout northern Europe, England and her colonies,

* Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

and in America. It may be said to be the standard butter of the world since it is the type made in all the great dairy countries. Sweet-cream butter is made especially in southern Europe, and in limited amounts in other countries.

The intensity and kind of flavor of butter is thus dependent on the acid fermentation of the milk or cream. It is not believed that the fat undergoes any changes during the acid fermentation of the milk which could produce the flavor of sour-cream butter, but rather that the increase in flavor is due to the absorption by the butter fat of certain of the compounds formed in the acid fermentation. It is not essential that the fat be present during the acid fermentation in order to impart flavor to the butter. If sweet cream is mixed with sour milk and churned at once, the flavoring compounds are absorbed by the fat from the fermented milk, and the butter will have much the same flavor, both as to intensity and kind, as though the fat had been present during the fermentation. The churning of a mixture of sweet cream and sour milk is used commercially and is identical with the methods employed by the manufacturers of oleomargarine and renovated butter to impart flavor to the flavorless fats they employ. It is impossible to recognize these substitutes for butter by their flavor since it is identical with and der ved from the same source as the flavor of butter.

In the past many ideas have been expressed as to the source of the flavor of butter; some have asserted that it is due, in part, to the decomposition of the proteins of milk by proteolytic bacteria. Both practical experience and experimental work have demonstrated the connection between the acid fermentation of milk and the flavor of butter, and it is certain that what is now considered the finest type of butter can be made from cream in which only acid-forming bacteria (see Chapter I) have grown.

Flavor of Butter.

Control of Butter Flavor.—The commercial value of any sample of butter is largely determined by its flavor. If it is lacking in flavor and aroma, or if it has a poor flavor, it brings a low price. The importance of being able to control the flavor, both as to degree and kind, in the manufacture of butter has increased greatly in recent years, because of the introduction of the creamery system, which has largely supplanted the making of butter on the farm. The financial success of any creamery

is largely dependent upon the ability of the butter maker to control the flavor of the product, so that it shall be uniform from day to day. It is asserted that one of the factors in the remarkable invasion of Denmark into the butter markets of the world is the uniformity of the Danish butter, not only from a single creamery, but from all the creameries of the country. To the Danes we owe the most improved methods for the control of the flavor of butter.

The other points, texture, color and salt, which the judge of butter takes into consideration, can be easily controlled, since they are due to mechanical operations. The flavor, on the other hand, is due to the by-products which are formed by microörganisms in the fermentation of the milk and cream, and which are absorbed and held by the fat. If any of the products formed possess a disagreeable taste or an offensive odor, the flavor and aroma of the butter will be impaired. It is thus evident that the control of the flavor of butter is dependent on the control of the acid forming bacteria that ferment the milk and cream. This is the problem of the modern butter maker and the modern methods seek to give him this control, to enable him to eliminate the undesirable bacteria, *Bact. coli aerogenes*, the second group,* and to insure the predominance of the desirable bacteria, *Bact. lactis acidi.* This general statement is not to be interpreted as meaning that all bacteria that injure the flavor of butter are to be included in the group mentioned, for many other types of bacteria, when present in milk in large numbers, may injure the flavor of the butter prepared from it.

The acid fermentation of the cream is most frequently called the ripening of cream and sour-cream butter is frequently called ripened-cream butter. The ripening of the cream not only increases the flavor of the product, but it enhances its keeping quality. The ripening of the cream also aids in the mechanical process of churning, the sour cream churning more easily and with less loss of fat in the butter milk.

KINDS AND NUMBERS OF BACTERIA IN CREAM.—The number and kinds of bacteria found in cream are dependent upon the number and kind in the milk from which the cream is obtained. The cream will, however, contain a greater number of bacteria per unit volume than the milk, since the immense number of fat globules passing through the milk serum carry mechanically a considerable proportion of the bacteria of the milk into the cream. This phenomenon is to be noted in gravity

* See Chap. I, Div. IV, in which the groups of bacteria are considered.

creaming, but to a much greater extent in the removal of the cream by use of the separator.

SPONTANEOUS RIPENING OF CREAM.—By this expression is meant the fermentation of the cream by those acid-forming bacteria that have, from one source and another, gained entrance to it, but which have not been intentionally added. Under these conditions the butter maker can exert but little control over the fermentation. A very considerable part of the butter made from such cream has an excellent flavor, because at the temperature at which cream is usually kept, *Bact. lactis acidi* and related organisms are the primary factors concerned in its fermentation and their by-products produce desirable flavors in butter. It is often asserted that the highest type of butter can be made only from spontaneously ripened cream.

As the cream from many farms was assembled at a creamery for the manufacture of butter, it became evident that some means of controlling the type of fermentation in the cream was needed. If the milk had been produced under clean conditions, and had been received at the creamery before the acid fermentation had gone on to any extent, and if the cream was then kept at temperatures most favorable for the lactic bacteria, the product was likely to be of good quality, but such ideal conditions did not always obtain. Cream containing a large proportion of harmful bacteria, or in an advanced state of fermentation, or possessing an undesirable flavor was often received, and the butter maker could not control the quality of the product under such conditions.

USE OF CULTURES IN BUTTER MAKING.—As the science of microbiology progressed and the rôle of microörganisms in all kinds of fermentation became known, it was evident that the control of the causal organism is tn important factor in determining the quality of any product of the aermentation industries. In the manufacture of butter, the first step in this direction was the addition of some fermented milk, cream, or of buttermilk, to the cream to be ripened. In this manner the number of acid-forming organisms in the cream was greatly increased, and the fermentation went on more rapidly and in more definite directions than without such additions, as the bacteria added were largely of the desirable group, *Bact. lactis acidi.* The addition of fermented milk to accelerate the souring of cream antedates by many hundred years the science of bacteriology.

The next logical step in the development of the process was the use of

the same types of bacteria from day to day. Cultures of these were obtained by allowing a quantity of milk to sour, and if it had the desired flavor, a small amount of it was added to another quantity of milk that had been heated, in order to destroy the acid-forming bacteria it contained. By the daily preparation of some heated milk, and the inoculation of it with the soured milk previously prepared, the butter maker could use the same types of bacteria for an indefinite time for addition to the cream.

It had been found by Hansen that, in order to control the flavor of beer, pure cultures of yeasts must be used for the fermentation of the wort. The success of this method in the brewing industry led to the introduction of pure lactic cultures for the fermentation of cream. The use of such cultures was suggested independently by Storch, a Danish bacteriologist and by Weigmann, the director of the dairy experiment station at Kiel in Germany, in 1890. Many cultures were isolated and tested as to their effect on the flavor of butter. Those found to be desirable could be maintained in the laboratory, and could be furnished to butter makers to be used and propagated in a manner similar to the method employed with the impure and less constant home-made starters. The pure cultures of lactic bacteria are widely used at present in the butter-producing countries of the world and their use is being constantly extended, as butter makers come to recognize the importance of controlling the ripening of cream.

It was found that the butter made from cream ripened by pure lactic cultures did not possess as high a flavor as did the finest butter made from naturally ripened cream. This led to the search for organisms that could be used alone, or together, with the lactic bacteria, and which should give the high flavor desired. Such cultures were found, but their use did not prove practical, either because they did not maintain their properties on continued cultivation, or because of their effect on the keeping quality of the product. The difference in flavor in the case of butter made from naturally ripened cream and that from cream ripened by pure lactic cultures is undoubtedly due to the products of the *B. coli-aerogenes* group.

The acid in spontaneously soured milk is very evident to the taste when the acidity is 0.6 per cent and above; the volatile acids formed by the members of the colon-aerogenes and coccus groups impart a sharp, pungent taste. In milk of like acidity fermented by pure cultures of *Bact. lactis acidi*, the acid is scarcely evident to the taste and there is no

sharpness, due to the absence of volatile acids. This same difference appears in the butter made from the two kinds of milk.

The low flavor of the butter made from cream ripened by pure cultures was one of the factors that prevented the rapid introduction of the cultures in this country. The demands of the butter market have changed and the mild flavored butter, which is now considered to be the finest, can be made by the use of pure cultures in the fermentation of pure sweet cream.

COMMERCIAL CULTURES.—In this country the preparation and distribution of cultures for the ripening of cream is largely in the hands of commercial firms; hence, the term "commercial culture" is applied to them. The different pure cultures are propagated in the laboratory of the maker; they are sent out either as liquid cultures, a small mass of milk or bouillon inoculated with the organism, or in a dry form, the latter being prepared by mixing a culture of the organism with an inert substance, such as milk sugar, milk powder, or starch, and drying at a low temperature. In a liquid the organisms are exposed to the effects of their own by-products, and the vitality of the culture is rapidly lost. Such cultures must be used when fresh in order to give good results, and they cannot be kept in stock by the manufacturer or dealer. The resistance of *Bact. lactis acidi* to desiccation is great; it thus lends itself to the preparation of the dry cultures, in which the organisms remain in a dormant condition and retain their vitality for long periods.

Most of the cultures now sold are pure, as this term is used in bacteriology, still others contain non-acid-forming organisms, intentionally added or introduced accidentally during the process of preparation. If the lactic bacteria are present in such cultures in large numbers, the impurities are usually of small practical significance. In the past so-called "duplex" cultures have been sold which were supposed to contain an acid-forming organism and a second organism that was to enhance the flavor of the product. Such cultures are no longer sold.

For the propagation in the creamery the contents of the container purchased are added to a small mass of milk that has been heated to destroy all non-spore-forming bacteria and other microörganisms; the milk, after being inoculated, is incubated at favorable temperatures and when curdled can be used for the inoculation of a second and larger quantity. The process of inoculating a quantity of milk is carried out daily. It is impossible for the butter maker to propagate the culture so

as to maintain the original purity, but with care in the heating of the milk the sterilization of all utensils and the maintaining of proper temperatures, the contamination that occurs will not injure the culture for practical work. The cultures propagated under such conditions gradually deteriorate and recourse must be had sooner or later to a fresh culture. The contamination that is of the greatest practical significance is undoubtedly that with other acid-forming bacteria rather than with the forms that remain in the milk after heating.

Many of the cultures gradually lose their fermentative properties, and do not form acid rapidly and in sufficient amounts to insure exhaustive churning and to produce the desired degree of flavor in the product. Cultures frequently become slimy or ropy on propagation. This is not necessarily due to contamination with specific slime-forming organisms but rather to a change in the lactic organism itself. Such an abnormality usually persists for only a short period and the conditions that govern its appearance and disappearance are not known. It is asserted by practical butter makers that the development of too high an acidity in the cultures as they are propagated in the creameries permanently impairs the value of the culture.

The cultures are propagated in skim milk. Where this is not available, unsweetened, condensed milk has been employed. Efforts have been made to grow the bacteria in some other kind of medium than milk, but without success. The starter is said to be ripe or in the best condition for use soon after curdling, or when the acidity is 0.5 to 0.7 per cent, as at this time it contains the maximum number of living cells. The practical man thus uses the curdling as an indication of the ripeness of the starter. The curdled milk should show no free whey, and the curd should be easily broken up to form a creamy mass that can be uniformly incorporated with the cream. The temperature of incubation and the amount of initial inoculation determine the rapidity with which the acid fermentation will progress, the maker seeking to regulate these so that the culture shall be ripe at the desired time each day.

USE OF PURE CULTURES IN RAW CREAM.—The cream as it reaches the creamery contains a greater or less number of acid-forming bacteria that ultimately will cause it to ripen and the flavor of the butter will be due to the by-products of the mixture of bacteria. If, through the addition of a pure culture, the relative number of organisms that are known to be favorable is greatly increased, the flavor of the product should be

improved. This has been found to be true in practice and it is now believed that pure cultures are of value not only in the ripening of sweet cream, but that the addition of a relatively large amount of starter to cream that is already fermented will enhance the value of the butter.

USE OF PURE CULTURES IN PASTEURIZED CREAM.—It is evident that the maker has but imperfect control over the fermentative processes when raw cream is treated with a pure culture. To insure more perfect control the destruction of the contained bacteria and the subsequent inoculation of the cream with a pure culture is indicated. The introduction of the process of pasteurization of cream for butter making was due to Storch. In Denmark this method is used almost exclusively. It has been introduced into the other dairy countries of the world and is constantly spreading. Pasteurization combined with the use of the pure culture represents the highest type of modern butter making, and where the raw product can be obtained in a fresh condition the butter maker has perfect control over the bacteria that cause the ripening; hence can control the flavor of the butter, both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The intensity of flavor of butter is dependent upon the amount of acid that is developed in the cream or on the ratio between the amount of fat and the by-products of the acid fermentation. If these by-products are small in amount, as in cream having a low acidity, the flavor of the butter will be low. If the acidity is allowed to reach the maximum, the flavor will be much higher. Thus the maker can control the intensity of flavor of butter as accurately as he can the kind of flavor. With rich cream, the acidity that can be developed is small and the ratio between the fat and the products of fermentation is low; thus, the flavor of butter made from very heavy cream is certain to be low.

PURE CULTURES IN OLEOMARGARINE AND RENOVATED BUTTER.—It was previously mentioned that the manufacturer of butter substitutes employs the same methods to impart butter flavor to his products as does the butter maker. The oleomargarine manufacturers employ pure cultures of lactic bacteria for the fermenting of milk that is mixed with the fats they employ. The same practice is followed by the manufacturer of renovated butter. Many of the creameries of the western states receive cream that is shipped long distances, and is collected from the farms but once or twice a week. It is thus in an advanced state of fermentation when it reaches the creamery. In order to prepare from this grade of cream, which often has a

most undesirable flavor, a merchantable product, various means are employed to remove the flavoring substances and to replace them with desirable flavors from the pure cultures. The acidity may be reduced by the addition of lime so that the cream can be pasteurized; the cream may be aerated by passing air through it, or it may be mixed with water and reseparated. After such treatment it is mixed with a large proportion of milk fermented by a pure culture and churned. The resulting product is constantly sold as the highest grade of creamery butter.

ABNORMAL FLAVORS OF BUTTER.—The abnormal flavors of butter are traceable to the partial replacement of the desirable acid-forming bacteria with other types of microörganisms. Many samples of butter having abnormal flavors have been examined, and the organisms believed to be the cause isolated and studied but it cannot be said that any particular group of microörganisms can be associated with any of the abnormal flavors met. It is asserted that "oily" butter, i. e., that having the taste of machine oil, is caused by bacteria and by microörganisms that decompose the fat, as *Oidium lactis*, yeasts, and liquefying bacteria. Organisms of the *B. coli* group that produce a turnip-like flavor in butter have been described by Weigmann. The flavors of putrid butter, fishy butter and also many other abnormal flavors have been ascribed to bacteria.

The abnormal flavors may be due to the presence in the milk of certain aromatic principles contained in the feed and excreted in the milk. Cabbage, turnips, and others of the cruciferæ impart their characteristic taste to the milk and butter.

DECOMPOSITION PROCESSES IN BUTTER.

Butter is a finished product at the time it is removed from the modern churn and all subsequent changes are likely to cause more or less deterioration. The specific causes of these changes are not well known but it is very evident from a study of the conditions that favor or retard the appearance of the flavors, characterizing these changes, that biological factors are concerned. Sweet-cream butter has very poor keeping qualities. As the proportion of acid-forming bacteria in butter is increased, either by the fermentation of the cream, by the addition of pure cultures, and through the use of the latter in connection with pasteurization, the keeping qualities are enhanced. Of the butter made from ripened cream, that prepared from cream, handled in a clean manner, and thoroughly

pasteurized and ripened with a pure culture of *Bact. lactis acidi*, has the best keeping qualities. It is asserted from very limited data that if fresh, sweet, clean cream is pasteurized, the butter will have better keeping qualities than when made from the same cream pasteurized and ripened with a pure culture. If this is true, it is evidence that not only the bacteria other than *Bact. lactis acidi* are harmful, but that this organism, that has been considered without influence on the keeping quality, must be classed as one of the factors in the decomposition of butter.

It has been shown that the bacterial content of the water used for the washing of the butter has an influence on the keeping quality. If the water is of surface origin and contains the bacteria peculiar to these types of waters, its influence may be marked and some method of treatment must be followed. Filtering or heating the water has been resorted to, the latter with marked success. A pure water will contain so few bacteria that they will not exert any noticeable influence on the keeping quality of the butter.

Storage temperature also has a marked influence on the deterioration changes in butter. Modern butter-storage rooms are kept below 0° F.; the butter is quite unchanged on removal from storage, but deteriorates much more rapidly than would have been true at the same temperature before storage. Another factor that is of influence in the keeping of butter is the amount of salt used. In salted butter, the contained water is a concentrated brine; in such a medium most forms of bacteria are unable to grow. Small packages deteriorate more rapidly than large ones, because the proportion of the mass of butter exposed to the air is relatively greater. Exposure to light is also claimed to exert a harmful influence. Antiseptic substances such as borax and boric acid have a marked effect on the deterioration changes. The New Zealand and Australian butter exported to the English markets is treated with preservatives.

A large amount of experimental work has been done in order to determine the effect of specific organisms on the keeping quality of butter. The results obtained have not been definite and it is not certain that the organisms employed are constantly concerned in the deterioration changes. It is very probable that both bacteria and molds exert an influence. The chemical changes that take place in the spoiling of butter are no better known than are the causal factors. It has been asserted

that there is a decomposition of the glycerides with a resulting increase in free acids. It has been shown that this does not always occur; that a butter may be in an advanced state of decomposition and its content in volatile acids not be higher than when fresh. Two types of changes are usually distinguished, rancidity and the appearance of a tallow-like odor. The latter may be due to purely chemical factors, while the former is quite certainly biological.

Moldy butter is a frequent trouble encountered by the butter maker. Butter itself is not a good substratum for mold growth, but the parchment paper in which the butter is wrapped and with which the containers are lined, is an excellent substratum. Air and moisture favor mold growth; hence if the papers and containers are contaminated with mold spores, the butter is likely to reach the market in an objectionable condition. Butter tubs are scalded, steamed, soaked in brine, or treated with a dilute solution of formaldehyde, in order to destroy the mold spores present. The most efficient treatment is to coat the inside of the container with paraffin. This prevents trouble from the container but not from the paper, which, if suspected as the source of trouble, may be treated by heating in water.

Pathogenic Bacteria in Butter.

If the milk contains pathogenic bacteria, they are certain to pass into the cream and be incorporated in the butter. It is not believed that butter is an important agent in the distribution of the organisms of tuberculosis and typhoid fever, although both are able to exist in salted butter for over two months. Foot-and mouth-disease may be caused in humans by the use of butter made from the milk of infected animals.

CHAPTER III.*

THE RELATION OF MICROÖRGANISMS TO CHEESE.

General.

Cheese consists of the fat and casein of milk, together with the insoluble salts; however, along with these constituents are carried some of the moisture of milk, in which are dissolved small quantities of sugar, albumin, and salts. The amount of moisture and soluble constituents found in cheese is determined by the amount of whey incorporated in the curd.

In the process of making cheese, it is necessary to curdle the milk, thus enabling the separation of the cheese constituents from the bulk of whey and soluble constituents of the milk. Two methods are employed to accomplish this purpose, and, as a result, two types of cheeses are produced.

Types of Cheese.

These types may be designated as "*Acid-curd Cheeses*" and "*Rennet-curd Cheeses.*"

Acid-curd Cheeses.—The curdling may be accomplished by allowing the milk to undergo acid fermentation, either spontaneously through the action of the normal flora of the milk, or through the addition of pure lactic cultures. This method furnishes the so-called acid-curd cheeses, which are ready for use as soon as the whey has been removed by draining and the curd salted. Acid-curd cheeses are not commercially important in that they are made for local consumption and are to be classed as a form of sour milk. They owe their flavor to the products of the acid fermentation, especially lactic acid. The moisture content is high, which, together with the acid reaction, favors the growth of molds and yeasts. These biological agents may soon spoil the cheese.

Rennet-curd Cheeses.—All of the important varieties of cheeses are made by the use of rennet for the curdling of the milk. Over four hundred kinds are known, but only twelve to fifteen are of great com-

*Prepared by E. G. Hastings.

mercial importance. With few exceptions, they are made from cow's milk. From the same raw material—milk, rennet, and salt—therefore, a wide variety of products, differing in texture, taste and odor, is obtained. This fact indicates the importance of biological factors in the changes the curd undergoes during the ripening process.

The rennet-curd cheeses may be divided into: 1, *hard cheeses;* 2, *soft cheeses;* the initial difference is largely in the amount of whey left in the curd during the making of the cheese and they meet in types which are classified with difficulty.

The rennet-curd cheeses of the cheddar group are at first tough and rubber-like in texture, due to their curd, which is not easily digested, is soluble in water only in small part, and, further, is devoid of flavor and aroma. The curd must pass through a complex series of chemical and physical changes, altering its texture, solubility and digestibility, and giving to it flavor and aroma by which the different kinds of rennet-curd cheeses are especially to be differentiated. In the hard cheeses the factors concerned in these changes act in a uniform manner throughout the entire mass of the cheese, making it possible to manufacture such cheeses in any desired size. In the case of the soft cheeses, the ripening changes are largely controlled by agents existing only on the surface, the products of such agents by means of diffusion gradually affecting the entire mass. In order that this may take place within a reasonable time, it is essential that these cheeses be made in small sizes. Then, too, the soft texture of such cheeses makes it impossible to handle them commercially in large sizes.

Conditions Affecting the Making of Cheese.

Quality of Milk.—In the curdling of milk by rennet the solid bodies present in the milk are retained in the curd, thus the fat globules are held, as are also the bacteria. The latter continue to grow as they would have done in the milk except that growth must take place in the form of colonies as in the solid culture media of the bacteriologist. The bacteria, however, produce the same fermentation in the curd as they would have done in the uncurdled milk.

The butter maker can control, through pasteurization and the use of pure lactic cultures, the fermentation of the cream. The pasteurization may be so efficient as to destroy all non-spore-forming bacteria since the

quality of the product will not be impaired by the use of temperatures approximating the boiling point. The cheese maker is much more dependent on the original quality of the milk, since effective pasteurization so changes the milk as to effect profoundly the expulsion of the whey from the curd and the development of flavor during the ripening

FIG. 81.—The type of curd obtained from milk in which the acid-forming flora consists largely of organisms of the *Bact. coli aerogenes* group. Many gas holes and few irregular-shaped, angular, mechanical holes due to imperfect "matting." (Original.)

process. If harmful forms of microörganisms are present in the milk, they will pass into the cheese and there produce their harmful effects. Through the addition of pure lactic cultures to the milk the proportion of desirable bacteria can be increased and a partial control of the fermentation thus secured.

TESTS FOR THE QUALITY OF MILK.—Methods by which the cheese maker can determine, in a rough manner, the kinds of bacteria present have been devised. The bacteria most dreaded and most frequently present are those of the *B. coli-aerogenes* group.

The method most frequently used for their detection consists in incubating a sample of the milk to be tested at temperatures ranging

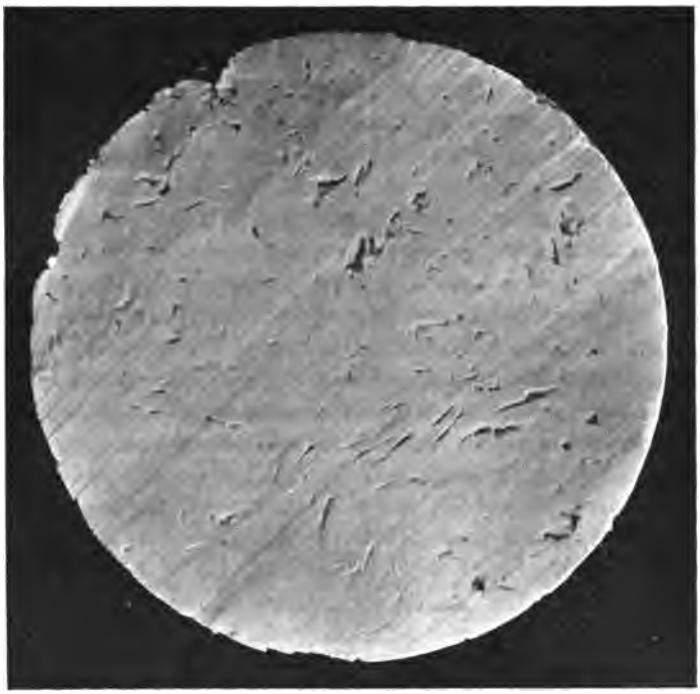


FIG 82 —The type of curd obtained from milk in which the acid-forming flora consists almost wholly of *Bact. lactis acidi*. No gas holes and no marked mechanical holes as the curd has "matted" almost perfectly. (Original.)

from 35° to 40° for a few hours and noting the type of curd that is formed. Milk suitable for cheese making should show the solid curd characteristic of the *Bact. lactis acidi* group, while gassy curds or soft and partially digested curds are indicative of bacteria that are likely to be harmful in the cheese.

An improvement over the fermentation test of foreign origin has

been devised by Babcock and Russell and is known as the *Wisconsin Curd Test.* It has for its basis the same principle as the simple fermentation test; however, a modification is introduced; the milk is curdled by the addition of rennet and the curd is cut and drained to free it from the whey as completely as possible. The jars employed in testing are kept at temperatures favorable for the kinds of bacteria sought; those for the colon group, requiring a higher optimum temperature than the lactic bacteria, should have a temperature of incubation from 35° to 40°, those for the lactic group from 30° to 35°. The great advantage of the *Wisconsin Curd Test* is its greater delicacy, since the bacteria are concentrated in a small volume, and thus their presence is more evident than would be the case in the larger mass of curd obtained when no rennet is added. The curd can also be removed from the jar, cut, tasted, and its texture determined, all of which aid in judging the quality of the milk. The curd should have a clean acid odor and taste; it should be free from sliminess on the surface, and possess a uniform texture. Such a curd can be obtained only in the presence of a considerable number of lactic bacteria. Very clean, fresh milk is likely to give an undesirable result, since milk always contains microörganisms which will grow rapidly at the high temperature in the absence of the acid-forming bacteria and which will usually produce undesirable flavors in the curd. This fact should be kept in mind in the testing of market milk.

RIPENING OF MILK.*—It has been shown that the growth of acid-forming bacteria in milk is not followed by a parallel increase in the acidity of the milk. Indeed milk may contain hundreds of thousands of acid-forming bacteria per c.c. and yet the acidity be no greater than when the milk was drawn from the cow. Ultimately the acidity begins to increase, and for some time increase in bacteria and acidity run parallel. The period during which bacterial proliferation is taking place but without corresponding increase in acidity is known as the "period of incubation."† Its length is determined by the temperature at which the milk is kept and by the amount of initial seeding with acid-forming bacteria.

* In order to illustrate the rôle of microörganisms in the making and ripening of cheeses, a somewhat detailed summary of the present knowledge concerning their action in Cheddar cheese will be given. Many of the factors concerned in the ripening of this kind of cheeses also function in the ripening of other rennet cheeses. In their description only such additional factors need be considered as are not active in Cheddar cheese.

† This should not be construed to mean that no acid is produced during this "so-called" period of incubation, but that such acid does not respond to the usual tests and may be found in combination with or neutralized by the constituents of the milk, such as casein.

In order to insure proper rennet action the maker of Cheddar cheese desires the milk to have an acidity of about 0.2 per cent. He thus wishes milk that has passed through the period of incubation and in which the acidity has begun to increase. If the milk shows the desired acidity when it reaches the factory, the making process is immediately begun. If the milk is too sweet, the period of incubation is shortened by warming the milk to temperatures most favorable for the lactic bacteria, 30° to 32°, and by the addition of pure lactic cultures, which are identical in nature and in method of propagation with those used in butter making. The development of a slight acidity is known as the "ripening" of milk.

CURDLING OF MILK.—Under the influence of a favorable temperature and the slight acidity, the milk is quickly changed by the rennin* to a firm, jelly-like mass that is cut, with appropriate knives, into small cubes. The curd encloses 95 to 99 per cent of the bacteria in the milk. The same factors that favor the curdling of the milk favor the shrinking of the curd and the expulsion of the whey from the cubes. The development of acid within the curd is rapid, due to the concentration of large numbers of bacteria in a small volume and to the favorable environment. During the six to eight hours that elapse between the curdling of the milk and the pressing of the curd, the increase of acidity is over 0.1 per cent per hour. The following table gives the acidity of milk and the whey expressed from the curd at various stages in the making of a typical Cheddar cheese.

Acidity of milk before adding rennet.....	0.20–0.21 per cent.
Acidity of whey immediately after cutting curd.	0.14–0.145 per cent.
Acidity of whey when removed from the curd.	0.16–0.18 per cent.
Acidity of whey when curd is packed.....	0.24–0.30 per cent.
Acidity of whey when curd is milled.....	0.65–0.75 per cent.
Acidity of whey when curd is salted.....	0.90–1.10 per cent.

MANIPULATION OF THE CURD.†—The curd particles at first show little tendency to cohere; but, as the acidity increases, the nature of the curd changes, and, when the whey is removed, the pieces of curd soon cohere and ultimately form a single mass in which the original cubes of curd cannot be detected. The fusion of the curd particles is known as "matting" and is an important step in the Cheddar process. The lack of acid

* The rennet used in cheese-making is obtained by extracting the abomasum the true digestive stomach of the calf with a solution of sodium chloride. The extract contains two enzymes a clotting or curdling enzyme, *rennin*, and a proteolytic enzyme, *pepsin*.

† Cheddar cheese.

formation within the curd prevents matting while the curd is in the vat, and may even render difficult the fusion of the particles under pressure. The nature of the change which the curd undergoes at this stage in the manufacture is not well understood, but probably is due to a combination between the paracasein and the lactic acid, the resulting compounds differing from the paracasein in physical properties and in solubilities.

RIPENING OF CHEESE.—Cheese in ripening undergoes profound physical and chemical changes under the influence of a number of factors, which for purposes of discussion may be divided into two groups: those by which the content of soluble nitrogen in the cheese is increased and the digestibility enhanced; and those which cause the formation of flavoring substances. During the ripening of the cheese the maker can do little toward the control of the factors which ultimately determine its commercial value. As in butter, the flavor is the most important characteristic of the ripened cheese and the most difficult to control.

Theories of Cheese Ripening. Many theories have been advanced to explain the changes that occur during the ripening process. Duclaux, a French microbiologist, studied the bacterial flora of Cantal cheese by aid of the crude methods available before the introduction of the gelatin-plate method. By the use of the dilution method, using bouillon as the nutrient medium, he isolated a number of kinds of spore-forming bacteria. The organisms formed two enzymes, one a curdling enzyme related to rennin, the other a proteolytic enzyme to which was given the name *casease.* A chemical study of the by-products of the organisms, when growing in milk, revealed a number of compounds that had previously been found in ripe cheese, such as leucin, tyrosin, and the ammonia salts of acetic, valeric and carbonic acids. The cultures often possessed a cheese-like odor. These facts led Duclaux to believe this class of organisms were responsible for the ripening of the hard cheese in question. The generic name *Tyrothrix* was applied on account of the supposed relation to cheese. This term is still found in current bacteriological literature. The methods employed by Duclaux were such as favored the growth of the liquefying, rather than the acid-forming bacteria. To the latter more recent investigators have devoted attention.

The theory that the proteolytic bacteria function in the ripening of hard cheese has been more recently emphasized by Adametz. It is sufficient to say that the number of spore-forming proteolytic bacteria

in cheese is not sufficiently large, nor is their presence so constant that any importance can be attached to them. Any agent to be considered as a factor in the ripening process must be present in every cheese in sufficient numbers to account for the change for which it is considered responsible. Such agents should be capable of demonstration. It should be remembered that, by following the rules laid down by the practical maker, a normal cheese can invariably be made, hence the factors of importance in the ripening must be constantly present in the milk or rennet. It is doubtful whether the liquefying bacteria will satisfy this requirement. It has been shown by de Freudenreich that such organisms, even when added to milk in large numbers, exert no influence on the ripening of hard cheese, since the conditions within the cheese are not such that growth can occur.

De Freudenreich, a Swiss microbiologist, by the aid of modern methods, demonstrated the constant presence of certain classes of acid-forming bacteria in Swiss cheese, and to them ascribed an important rôle in the ripening of this hard cheese. He was led to this conclusion by their great numbers in the fresh cheese, and by the fact that cheese made from milk drawn under aseptic conditions, which thus contains no lactic bacteria, do not ripen; through the discovery, also, that certain of the lactic bacteria predominating in Swiss cheese, those of the *Bact. bulgaricum* group, exert a solvent effect on the casein of milk, although they are devoid of action on gelatin.

Babcock and Russell demonstrated the presence of an inherent proteolytic enzyme in milk, to which the term *galactase* was applied. This enzyme can be demonstrated by preserving a sample of fresh milk with chloroform or other mild antiseptic. At 37° curdling occurs in three to four weeks; the content of soluble nitrogen in the milk is slowly augmented. The presence of this proteolytic enzyme, together with the fact that a normal cheese cannot be made from milk in which this enzyme has been destroyed by heat, led these investigators to consider this inherent enzyme of milk an important factor in cheese ripening.

*Present Knowledge of Causal Factors.**—The rôle of certain factors in the ripening of Cheddar cheese has been established beyond doubt by the chemical and bacteriological investigations of recent years. It is certain that acid-forming bacteria are essential factors in the ripening of this kind of hard cheese, and probably all kinds of rennet cheeses.

* Cheddar cheese.

As has been shown the growth of acid-forming bacteria is rapid during the making of Cheddar cheese. The growth continues during the pressing and subsequent thereto; the maximum number of lactic bacteria is found when the cheese is one to five days old. As many as 1,500,000,000 per gram of the moist cheese have been demonstrated.

Causes of Proteolysis.—The proteolytic action of rennet extract on the paracasein of cheese was demonstrated by Babcock and Russell, and by Jensen. This property is due to the fact that rennet extract also con-

A *B*

FIG. 83.—Proteolytic action of *rennet extract* in the absence and in the presence of acid-forming bacteria. *A*, sterile milk agar; a strip of filter paper treated with rennet was allowed to remain on the medium for 1 hour at 37°. No digestion of the casein. *B*, milk agar inoculated with *Bact. lactis acidi;* incubated for 24 hours at 37°, then treated as *A*. True digestion of the casein is indicated by the clearing. (Original.)

tains the enzyme *pepsin*, which for its action outside the body requires conditions similar to those which obtain in the stomach; in other words, the presence of sufficient acid to activate it. The hydrochloric acid secreted by the walls of the stomach acts as the activating agent in the body. The acidity resulting from the fermentation of the sugar in the curd is sufficient to activate the pepsin. Under its influence the paracasein is partially converted into soluble decomposition products such as albumoses and peptones. In the absence of acid-forming bacteria no acid is formed; consequently the pepsin does not become active and no proteolytic effect is produced. Under these conditions the curd remains tough and elastic and the solubility is not increased. It is thus evident that

acid-forming bacteria are essential factors in cheese ripening. The pepsin of the rennet extract and the galactase suffice to account for the initial proteolysis of the paracasein. Since neither of these enzymes forms ammonia, which is always found in ripe cheeses, the origin of this simple decomposition product of protein is still unexplained. It may owe its origin to microörganisms not yet discovered.

Prevention of Putrefaction.—The various stages in the decomposition of milk have been outlined in a previous chapter. Briefly they are as follows: The first evident change is the curdling due to the acid-forming bacteria. Succeeding this, the acid, semi-solid mass or curd is a favorable substratum for the characteristic mold of milk, *Oidium lactis*, which soon forms a white, velvet-like layer over the surface of the milk. Like other molds, this form can use acids as a source of energy. The acid is then oxidized to carbon dioxide and water, and thus the reaction of the milk is slowly changed until a point is reached which allows the putrefactive bacteria, that have remained dormant during the period of unfavorable environment, to develop. The curd is accordingly peptonized and putrefaction occurs. If the acid reaction is maintained through the prevention of mold growth, the milk will be preserved from the attacks of putrefactive organisms and will remain unchanged for an unlimited time.

The second rôle of the acid-forming bacteria in cheese is to protect it against the putrefactive organisms that are constantly present in milk and hence in cheese. The acid reaction of the cheese, due to the persistence of lactic acid, or to the formation of volatile acids after the initial fermentation, is sufficient to prevent the growth of the putrefactive bacteria within the cheese. If the cheese is made from milk which contains no acid-forming bacteria and few putrefactive ones, or if the sugar is removed from the curd by washing it with water, the cheese will not ripen since there is no acid to activate the pepsin; the curd will remain in much the same condition as when it was removed from the press. Cheese made from milk containing no acid-forming bacteria but many putrefactive bacteria is likely to undergo putrefaction, since the latter class of organisms finds conditions for growth in the absence of an acid reaction. Such a condition is rarely noted in a hard cheese under normal conditions, but may be produced experimentally. The biological acid may be replaced by other acids added to the curd in appropriate amounts, since these will activate the pepsin and protect the cheese against the

attacks of putrefactive bacteria; but it is not certain that the cheese will develop a normal flavor when lactic acid is replaced by mineral acids.

Flavor Production in Cheese.—The factors that have been discussed are undoubtedly the most important ones concerned in the proteolysis of the curd, and are thus the factors concerned in the changes of texture, solubility and digestibility. The flavor, which develops during the ripening process, has been regarded as due to the proteolysis of the paracasein. A thoroughly ripened cheese contains a large amount of ammonia and related compounds. It was thus natural to consider the flavor due to these simple products of protein degradation. More recently it has been discovered that the intensity of flavor does not necessarily correspond to the content of the cheese in these products; indeed a cheese may have a high content of nitrogen as ammonia and yet be low in flavor.

The Wisconsin Experiment Station has found that the volatile fatty acids of Cheddar cheese increase as the ripening progresses. In the following table are given the data obtained from the detailed study of a normal Cheddar cheese.

Acids in 100 Grams of Dry Matter.

	c.c. of N/10 alkali neutralized.				
	3 days	42 days	3 months	5 1/2 months	10 months.
Lactic acid	84.09	90.28	124.00	103.70	74.10
Acetic acid	11.59	29.44	24.25	25.86	12.64
Propionic acid	0.41	2.15	3.42	1.07	2.63
Butyric acid	0.73	2.17	3.50	4.82	5.45
Caproic acid	0.00	0.36	0.96	1.25	2.23

It will be noted that the content of the higher volatile acids, those especially marked in odor, continually increases. It is possible to separate other volatile compounds found in cheese from the volatile fatty acids by distilling with steam, neutralizing the distillate with an alkali and redistilling; the second distillate will contain the alcohols and esters present in the cheese. Such a distillate prepared from Cheddar cheese is found to possess

the characteristic aroma of the cheese in question. The esters it contains are largely those of ethyl alcohol. The acid-forming bacteria, as stated previously, produce varying amounts of volatile acids and slight amounts of alcohols and esters. It is likely that the larger part of the volatile compounds found in the ripening cheese is formed in fermentations which take place subsequent to the initial fermentation of the lactose. The flavor of Cheddar cheese, therefore, owes its origin very probably to the fermentation of the lactose, and to the further change which the products of the initial fermentation undergo under the influence of factors yet unknown. The death and disintegration of the lactic bacteria may liberate intracellular enzymes, or possibly, the period of initial bacterial activity is followed by a second in which unknown forms are concerned, the result of whose action is the production of flavoring substances.

By appropriate means the constant presence of other types of bacteria than the lactic can be demonstrated, but little is known concerning their number and still less of their probable action in cheeses because of the lack of knowledge of the compounds on which they may act or those they may form. That some biological factor is concerned in the production of flavor in Cheddar cheese is indicated by the fact that if changes are made in the methods of manufacture, changes in flavor are likely to result. If the salt is omitted, the typical flavor does not appear. This can be explained only by the action of the salt on certain types of bacteria, which, in its absence, are able to grow and produce compounds that are not found in a normal cheeses. Apparently the methods of manufacture establish a certain equilibrium in the bacterial life which results in the production of definite substances in amounts varying within certain limits. If any condition is varied too widely, a deviation in the microbial balance is produced and the products formed in the cheeses are changed in kind or in amounts, either of which may result in a change of flavor.

Abnormal Cheeses.

The development of a normal texture and flavor in Cheddar cheese is largely dependent on the presence of definite types of bacteria. If these are replaced, wholly or in part, by other kinds, the product is likely to suffer in texture, flavor or both. As has been emphasized previously, the bacterial content of the milk is of the greatest importance in cheese, since the organisms in the milk pass into the cheese and there produce

the same products as they would have done in the uncurdled milk. All abnormalities of the cheese so far as they are occasioned by bacteria are due to the abnormal flora of the milk. To the raw material the maker must direct his attention if a fine product is to be prepared.

GASSY CHEESE.—The most frequent trouble encountered and the one of greatest economic importance is the fermentation caused by organisms belonging largely to the *B-. coli-aerogenes* group. It has been seen that these produce in milk gases, such as carbon dioxide and hydrogen, and offensive smelling and tasting compounds. In cheese similar compounds are formed by these organisms; the gas causes the more or less abundant formation of holes which give to the cheese judge an indication of what may be expected with reference to flavor. All milk contains some of the gas-forming organisms, but it is only when they are numerous that marked injury is done.

Gassy cheese may also be due to the presence of lactose-fermenting yeasts which are usually found in milk in such small numbers that they cannot compete with the lactic bacteria in the fermentation of the sugar in the cheese. At times the number may be increased to such an extent that the major part of the sugar is fermented by them, alcohol and carbon dioxide being produced. An outbreak of gassy Swiss cheese was found by Russell and Hastings to be due to such yeasts that had gained entrance to the milk from the whey-barrels because of careless washing of the milk cans. The cheese makers of the country are realizing the importance of the contamination of the milk from the transportation of whey and milk in the same can. The most practical means of preventing trouble from this practice is to heat the whey to 68° as it passes from the cheese vat to the storage tank. This temperature destroys the harmful microörganisms, and if the storage tank is kept in a sanitary condition the whey is sweet when returned to the farm in the milk can. It has been demonstrated that such a treatment of the whey results in a marked improvement in the quality of the product.

MISCELLANEOUS ABNORMALITIES OF CHEESE.—*Bitter cheese* is produced by bacteria that form a bitter principle. An outbreak of bitter cheese investigated by Hastings was found to be due to the replacement of the normal acid-forming flora by a lactic organism which produced such an intense bitterness as to mask the acid taste in the milk and cheese.

Colored cheese is produced by chromogenic bacteria. In case the colonies are not numerous and the pigment formed is not soluble in any of the constituents of the cheese, the color will appear as colored specks, such as the rusty spot investigated by Connel and Harding, which is due to red forms of *B. rudensis*. If the colonies are very numerous, or if the pigment is soluble, the curd may be uniformly colored.

Putrid cheese is caused by the absence of sufficient acidity to hold the putrefactive bacteria in check. This trouble is rare in cheddar cheese, since such cheese is made from ripened milk. Fruity flavors are asserted to be due to yeasts which form fruit esters.

Moldy Cheese.—In the moist air of the curing-room the cheese forms an excellent substratum for the growth of common molds whose pigmented spores discolor the surface of the cheese and thus impair its value because of the appearance rather than by any effect in the flavor. Cheddar cheese is protected effectively from molds by dipping the cheese, when two or three days old, in melted paraffin which excludes the air from the spores on the surface of the cheese.

Specific Kinds of Cheese.

There is a number of cheeses made in this, and especially in foreign countries, that are of great commercial importance. Only a few can be mentioned. It has been found possible to manufacture a few so-called "foreign cheeses" in this country; however, with some "foreign cheeses" the manufacture has been successful only in such localities where such types originally developed, and where the climate and other conditions are favorable to a normal ripening.

Cheddar Cheese.—*Cheddar cheese*, treated in much detail in the foregoing considerations because it is the most important American cheese, is made in England and her colonies and in the United States. It appears in many varieties and by the American consumer is often called American cheese in distinction from the foreign cheese. This distinction is not wholly applicable at the present time.

Emmenthaler Cheese.—*Swiss or Emmenthaler cheese* originated in Switzerland, but is now made in various other countries. A large amount is made in Wisconsin, Ohio and New York (Fig. 84). It is characterized by its sweetish flavor and by the so-called "eyes," which are holes formed by gas, produced in a fermentation that occurs subsequent to the fermentation of the lactose. The number of eyes is not large and

they are evenly distributed throughout the mass of the cheese except near the surface.

The cheese is made from as fresh milk as it is possible to secure. The rennet used is prepared by placing a piece of the dried rennet in whey and incubating the same for twenty-four to thirty-six hours at 30°. This is employed in place of the commercial extract used by the Cheddar maker. It serves not only to curdle the milk, but adds to it a large number of acid-forming bacteria that have grown in the rennet solution during the period of incubation. The number is not, however, sufficient to cause any development of acid during the making process which differs from the preparation of Cheddar cheese in the method of firming

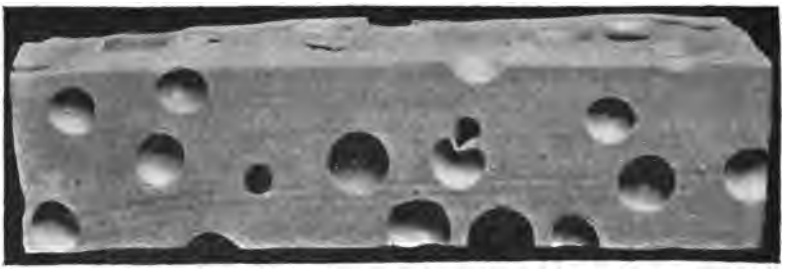


FIG. 84.—Typical development of "eyes" in Swiss cheese. (Original.)

the curd. This is accomplished by heating the curd to 52° to 60°, and by cutting it into pieces scarcely larger than grains of wheat. The salt is applied to the exterior of the cheese by immersion in brine for one to four days and by sprinkling salt on the surface.

The fermentation of the lactose proceeds rapidly during the pressing and subsequent thereto, so that within a few days the sugar has disappeared. The lack of the development of acid during the making probably results in a somewhat different relation between the acid and protein from that existing in a Cheddar cheese, which, together with the absence of salt gives a somewhat different environment, thus making possible the development of a different flora. There is no ground for believing that the agents concerned in the proteolytic changes are other than those that function in Cheddar cheese. The flavor must, however, be due to other factors; this is indicated by the fact that if the milk is ripened as in the Cheddar process, or if salt is added to the curd the flavor will approxi-

mate the Cheddar flavor. The formation of the eyes is inhibited by salt, as is indicated by their relative scarcity in the outer layers of the cheese. Jensen has shown that the eyes are due to the fermentation of lactates with the formation of propionic and acetic acids, and carbon dioxide. The causal organism is found in the milk and the whey rennet. It is believed that lactic bacteria of the *Bact. bulgaricum* group are important factors in the ripening of Swiss cheese. They are present in large numbers in the rennet and cheese. Mixed cultures of an organism of this group and a mycoderma are used with success for the inoculation of the whey in which the rennet is to be soaked. The exact rôle of this form of lactic organism is not known; de Freudenreich considered them to be concerned in the proteolysis of the paracasein, since he had found that the content of sterile milk in soluble nitrogen increased when inoculated with the organism. It is probable that the formation of eyes and the flavoring compounds are due, in part at least, to the same factors.

In the other kinds of cheeses to be described, the rôle of the acid-forming bacteria is similar, if not identical, to their rôle in Cheddar cheese, *i.e.*, in activating the pepsin of the rennet and in preventing the growth of putrefactive bacteria. The factors concerned in flavor development are different.

ROQUEFORT CHEESE.—This cheese, which is prepared almost exclusively in the Department of Aveyron in southern France, is made from sheep's milk. Its most striking characteristic is the marbled or mottled appearance of the interior, due to the growth of a mold, *Penicillium roqueforti*, Thom. The curd is inoculated with the mold, when it is placed in the press, by sprinkling the curd with bread crumbs on which the mold has grown. The growth and sporulation of the mold in the interior of the cheese are favored by piercing it with small needles, thus admitting air. The characteristic flavor is due, partially at least, to the mold.

This cheese is cured in caves having a temperature below 15°. The fermentative processes are apparently closely dependent on the moisture and temperature conditions of the curing room. This emphasizes the importance of biological factors in the ripening process.

GORGONZOLA CHEESE, prepared in Italy from cow's milk, and STILTON CHEESE, made in England are similar to Roquefort in appearance and are supposed to contain the same mold or a closely related type often called *Penicillium glaucum*.

CAMEMBERT CHEESE.—The soft cheeses are best represented by this important French cheese made from cow's milk by the addition of rennet. The milk is ripened to an acidity of 0.20 to 0.25 per cent before the addition of the rennet. The curd, which thus contains many acid-forming bacteria, is neither cut nor heated in order to retain the maximum amount of whey. The curd is placed in small hoops and allowed to drain without pressure. Salt is applied to the surface of the cheese.

The milk sugar is rapidly fermented and the resulting acidity is high, for the cheese contains 60 to 70 per cent of moisture when fresh and 50 per cent when ready for consumption. The high moisture content of the cheese and the humidity and temperature conditions of the curing room favor the rapid development of microörganisms on the surface of the cheese. Both molds and bacteria thrive under the influence of these favorable conditions, changing the cheese to a soft, smooth and butter-like mass, while a characteristic flavor is developed.

In three or four days the cheese becomes covered with the growth of *Oidium lactis;* the characteristic mold of Camembert cheese, *Penicillium camemberti,* appears later, within five to six days. These molds reduce the acidity of the curd, and through the enzymes, which they produce and which gradually diffuse into the cheese, proteolyze the curd very completely. The appearance of the cheese when cut indicates the depth to which the enzymes have penetrated; when the entire mass is acted upon, the cheese is ready for use. The reduction of the acidity by the molds exposes the cheese to the attacks of putrefactive bacteria and it soon becomes unfit for use after it is completely ripened. A number of different kinds of bacteria are found in the slimy surface layer, but their rôle is not known.

The development of the characteristic flavor and aroma is dependent on a certain relation between the various biological agents concerned in the ripening. This balance is dependent on very narrow conditions of temperature and humidity; slight changes in these environmental conditions favor or retard the individual types in varying degrees. If the equilibrium essential for the development of typical flavor is destroyed this cheese fails to ripen properly and is of low value. The manufacture of Camembert cheese is a delicate problem in the ecology of microörganisms, and because of this fact the manufacture is attended with greater difficulties than is the case with most types of hard cheese.

CHAPTER IV.*

RELATION OF MICROÖRGANISMS TO SOME SPECIAL DAIRY PRODUCTS.

General.

There are a number of special dairy products which do not normally come into a discussion of market milk, butter or cheese, but which are of considerable importance. A book of this sort would not be complete without a discussion of some of these products from the bacteriological point of view. Most of these special products have been developed as commercial enterprises and the processes of manufacture have been zealously guarded as trade secrets. The result is that there is very little available data on the manufacture of these products and very little authoritative knowledge about their bacteriological condition. It is, therefore, difficult to give a full discussion of the microbiology of these products. A few of the more important ones will be discussed, however.

Condensed Milk.

There are at least three quite distinct kinds of condensed milk made under conditions which result in an entirely different bacteriological condition in the finished product. These different products must, therefore, be considered separately. Condensed milk means simply milk from which a large part of the water has been removed, thus decreasing its bulk, the purpose being to lessen the cost of transportation and to increase the keeping quality of the product. Water is removed from milk by some process of heating, either with or without vacuum, the heating process being more or less equivalent to pasteurization.

Sweetened Condensed Milk.—This product is made by removing a large part of the original water by means of heat and the addition of cane sugar. It is then put up in sealed cans. It is not intended to be sterile. The degree of heat to which it is subjected is not sufficient to

*Prepared by W. A. Stocking.

kill all of the microörganisms present and it is also subject to infection after the condensing is completed. Cane sugar is added to the milk, making the final product contain about 25 per cent of water, 35 per cent milk solids and 40 per cent cane sugar. The low percentage of moisture together with the added sugar tends to preserve this product against the action of microörganisms. There may be some bacterial growth, the rapidity depending upon the temperature at which the product is kept, but it is usually slow and milk prepared in this way will keep for a considerable time without undergoing marked bacterial changes. Some gas producing bacteria exist in the milk and if cans containing the organisms are allowed to remain at warm temperatures, they will develop in spite of the large percentage of sugar, producing sufficient amounts of gas to cause the ends of the cans to bulge out. Such cans are known commercially as "swell-heads."

UNSWEETENED CONDENSED MILK.—In this form of condensed milk approximately the same amount of moisture is removed as in the sweetened product but no sugar is added. The decreased amount of moisture tends to prevent the rapid growth of bacteria, but this is not enough to guarantee the keeping quality of the product. After the milk is condensed it is put into the can, hermetically sealed, and then placed in steam sterilizers and subjected to temperatures somewhat above the boiling-point. In this way the milk is heated a sufficient length of time to insure perfect sterilization of the contents of the cans. If this process is properly done, the finished product contains no living microörganisms and from the bacteriological standpoint the milk should keep indefinitely.

Sometimes the unsweetened product is sold in bulk in cans. In this case it is subject to more or less contamination after heating and is not sterile, but because of the small amount of moisture and the concentration of the milk solids, the bacteria do not develop rapidly and if kept at a cool temperature, the milk will keep several days without undergoing appreciable biological fermentations.

CONCENTRATED MILK.—There is now on the market a form of condensed milk prepared by a different process, which is commonly known as concentrated milk. By this method the water in the milk is removed by means of dry air. The milk is first heated and then air under pressure is forced through it. By this process the milk is heated to a temperature of 60° (140° F.), and this temperature maintained for two hours, during which time air is forced through the milk causing violent agitation and

the removal of the moisture. At the end of this time the milk is reduced to one-fourth its original volume.* The result of this process is a pasteurized milk, with a marked reduction of the original germ content. Investigations by Conn failed to show the presence of *B. coli* in milk prepared by this process. The reduction in the bacterial content of the milk is similar to that secured by other methods of pasteurization. No additional sugar is added to this milk so the product is, therefore, a pasteurized milk containing a small amount of moisture. Because of the small amount of moisture and the concentration of the milk sugar, the bacteria which survive the heating process do not grow rapidly at low temperatures. The following figures will serve to illustrate the effect of this process upon the bacterial content of milk:

Number of bacteria per c.c. in original milk	Number of bacteria per c.c. in finished product
1,250,000	15,000
3,000,000	21,000
518,000	26,000
894,000	9,950
796,000	10,000
150,000	5,000

The rate at which the bacteria develop in this milk is shown by the following counts:

Number of sample	Number of bacteria per c.c.		
	2 days old	4 days old	6 days old
1	18,000	39,000	46,000
2	55,000	28,000	39,000
3	3,500	11,000	10,000
4	4,400	5,270	4,630

The lack of moisture and concentration of milk sugar prevents the rapid growth of these organisms so that bacterial changes do not take

* Data furnished by H. W. Conn.

place as rapidly as in ordinarily pasteurized milk retaining its normal moisture.

POWDERED MILK.—This product is produced by carrying the extraction of the water farther than in the case of the condensed milks. The water is removed to a point where the milk solids can be reduced to a powdered form. This product contains the original milk solids with a very small percentage of moisture usually not more than 2 1/2 per cent. There are several forms of powdered milk now on the market produced by somewhat different methods. In some cases the moisture is removed from the milk by its being exposed to a heated surface in a thin layer. Sometimes the drying is done in vacuum. The resulting product is dry and can be ground to the form of flour.

Another process is to remove the moisture by spraying the milk by means of an atomizer into the top of a hot chamber, the moisture being removed while the fine particles of milk are falling to the floor. By this process the product accumulates on the floor as a very dry flour and does not require any grinding. In the first process the heat is sufficient to pasteurize the milk while in the latter process it is pasteurized before being subjected to the drying process. The powdered milks do not claim to be sterile but are preserved against subsequent action of microörganisms because of the very low percentage of moisture which they contain. It is probable that there is no appreciable increase in the number of bacteria in milk flour and the product will keep for a long time without undergoing bacterial fermentations.

CANNED BUTTER AND CHEESE.

Some effort has been made to put up butter and cheese in hermetically sealed cans, the purpose being to increase the keeping qualities of the products and influence the flavor by controlling the development of the aerobic bacteria. Only a limited amount of bacteriological work has been done on these canned products and the biological changes which take place in them are not very well known.

SPECIAL MILK DRINKS MADE BY THE ACTION OF MICROÖRGANISMS.

From time immemorial fermented or sour milk has been used as an article of food. We are told that Abraham* placed "curdled milk"

*Genesis 18:8. The Hebrew word "hemah" translated in the English authorized version of the Bible "butter" means "curdled milk." Century Bible, Vol. Judges and Ruth, p. 72.

before his guests and that Moses told the Israelites that curdled milk was one of the blessings which Jehovah had given to his chosen people.* History also tells us that the wandering tribes of Arabia used fermented milk as a beverage. For centuries many of the tribes of eastern Europe and western and middle Asia and parts of Africa have used sour milk for food. Each of these regions appears to have had its own particular milk beverage resulting from the particular bacterial flora of the region.

The sour milk products which are now on the market under a variety of names have been derived from these original sour-milk drinks of antiquity. Fermented milk beverages have become very popular during the last few years among all the civilized peoples, partly because they make a pleasant drink but more especially because of their supposed therapeutic value.†

KUMYSS (KOUMISS, KUMISS, ETC.).—Kumyss derives its name from the Kumanes, a Russian tribe which lived along the river Kuma. This drink was prepared from mare's milk by placing it in a leather bag and adding a small amount of old kumyss as a starter.‡ In this country kumyss is made from cow's milk. This product is now placed upon the market by a number of companies who keep their methods, so far as possible, from their rivals by maintaining strict secrecy in regard to the methods of preparation. Dr. Piffard§ who has done special work on this product states that kumyss is fermented by the action of yeasts and lactic bacteria. This fermentation produces approximately 1 per cent of alcohol and about 0.75 per cent of acid. Kumyss is strongly effervescent. The lactic organisms used in the preparation of this material appear to be a strain of the common *Bact. lactis acidi.* Whether or not the yeasts are the common forms used by bakers cannot be stated with certainty.

Kumyss can be easily prepared in the household by the addition of can sugar and baker's yeast to fresh, warm milk which should be kept at a temperature of about 38° (100° F.) until gas begins to form. It should then be bottled and kept at a cool temperature. In one or two days a slight amount of alcohol will be formed and a sufficient amount of carbon dioxide to cause marked effervescence.

KEFIR (KEFYR, KEPHIR, KEFR, ETC.).—Kefir was orginally made and used by the inhabitants of the Caucasus Mountains. It was made

* Deut. 32:14.
† Metchnikoff's Prolongation of Life.
‡ Milch Zeitung, September, 1889.
§ New York Medical Journal, January 4, 1908.

from the milk of goats, sheep or cows and was fermented by the addition of "kefir grains" to the milk. The origin of these kefir grains is unknown but the natives believe that they were the gift of Mahomet and are carefully preserved by them.

Kefir was prepared by the natives by placing milk in a goat skin bag and shaking it at intervals until it began to ferment. The kefir grains were then removed, dried and preserved for future use. The fermented kefir was also used as a starter for inoculating new lots. This beverage is now commonly made by more scientific methods.* The principal points to be observed in the preparation of kefir are cleanliness and proper temper-

FIG. 85.—A large sized kepfir grain and the three species of bacteria of which it is composed. (*From Conn, after de Freudenreich.*)

ature for fermentation and the regulation of the fermentation so that not the acid but the alcoholic fermentation will prevail.† Good kefir should be highly effervescent, should be free from lumps and contain about 1 per cent of acid but show no marked tendency to whey off. According to Kern, kefir is fermented by a mixed culture of yeasts and bacteria in symbiosis. He found but one form of bacteria present in the cultures he studied. De Freudenreich‡ made an extended study of the flora of kefir. He prepared the kefir from the kefir grains and isolated the organisms present, putting these organisms together in different combinations in order to determine which were necessary for the proper fermentation of the kefir. He found the kefir contained four different organisms: yeasts, streptococci, micrococci, and bacilli. The yeasts and streptococci were

* Milch Zeitung, 1885, p. 209.

† F. Stohman, Milch und Molkerei Products, p. 1006 to 1013.

‡ Centr. für Bakt. Abt. 2, Vol. 3, 1897.

plated in gelatin without difficulty but it was very difficult to grow the other two organisms present on any artificial media. He concluded that the yeasts present in kefir are not identical with the species commonly used in making beer and named it *Saccharomyces kefir*. The streptococcus curdled milk in less than forty-eight hours at a temperature of 37° but the micrococcus did not curdle milk at all, although it produced a considerable amount of acid.

De Freudenreich changed the name of the bacillus from *Dispora caucasica*, given it by Kern to *B. caucasicus*, because it did not produce spores as Kern supposed. He also found that this organism would not grow at all on media without sugar, very slightly on milk, serum, agar, and best of all in milk, in which it produces both gas and acid without curdling the milk. This organism is 5 μ or 6 μ in length by 1 μ in width, is slightly motile and retains Gram's stain. It has a thermal death-point of 55° for five minutes.

The preparation of good kefir seems to depend upon the combined action of the four types of organisms described. Kefir is sometimes prepared without the use of the kefir grains* by placing milk in bottles to which is added a small amount of compressed yeast and sucrose. The bottles are then held at a temperature of 10° to 15° about fifteen hours and shaken occasionally. Kefir prepared in this way gives an effervescent milk flavored drink.

LEBEN.—For centuries the Egyptians have used a fermented milk drink known as *leben* or *leben raib*. This was prepared from the milk of cows, buffaloes, and goats. In general it resembles the other fermented milk drinks in the fact that the fermentation is produced by yeasts and a variety of other microörganisms working together. At least one yeast and three species of bacteria seem to be normal to this product. A fermented milk drink very similar to leben is also used in Algeria. Just the action of each microörganism concerned in the fermentation of this product is not certain, but it is probable that all of the species are essential for the production of the particular flavor and consistency of the fermented product. It is claimed that the fermentation that takes place in the milk renders it more digestible than raw milk. For this reason it is recommended for the use of invalids and persons having weak digestion.

YAHOURTH OR MATZOON (YOGURT, YAHOURD, MADZOON, ETC.).—A fermented milk drink known by one of the above names has been used by the Bulgarian tribes for a long time. It has recently been studied and

* Milch Zeitung, 1888, p. 393.

brought to public notice by the investigations and writings of Metchnikoff,* who was struck by the longevity of the tribes using this product as a part of their regular diet. As a result of his investigations, Metchnikoff has advanced his theory regarding the antiseptic power of certain strains of lactic bacteria in the digestive tract. His theory is that certain species or types of bacteria which are able to resist the action of the stomach and can, therefore, pass through into the intestines have the power of checking the growth of the putrefactive bacteria existing there and thereby prevent the production and absorption of bacterial toxins which cause autointoxication. As a result of his experiments, Metchnikoff came to the conclusion that the acid organism (*Bact. bulgaricum*) found in yahourth was able to establish itself in the intestinal tract and produce enough lactic acid to hold in check the putrefactive processes which otherwise exist there.

Yahourth is made by the Bulgarians in skin bags in the same way that the Russian tribes prepare kumyss. It is similar to the other fermented drinks already described in the fact that it is produced by a mixed flora of microörganisms. At least one yeast is present and two or more species of bacilli capable of producing lactic acid in relatively large amounts. These two organisms are known as *Bact. bulgaricum* and *Bacillus paralacticus*. Herter states that *Bact. bulgaricum* is 4μ to 6μ in length by 1μ in width and grows singly or in pairs and occasionally in chains. It stains with ordinary aniline dyes and by Gram's method. It grows with difficulty on ordinary laboratory media and is therefore hard to obtain in pure cultures. These organisms produce a much higher percentage of acid than the common *Bact. lactis acidi* and also grow at a much higher temperature.

This makes it possible to secure it in practically pure cultures by growing it in milk at a high temperature. Grown in pure cultures, the *Bact. bulgaricum* will produce from 1 to 2 or more per cent of acidity. It grows well at temperatures between 37° and 40° and even higher. Recently a number of fermented milk drinks have been put upon the market which have evidently been derived from the yahourth. These are sold under such trade names as *zoolak, vitalac, yogurt, fermenlactyl*, etc. The flora of these preparations appears to be practically the same as that of the original yahourth.

All of the fermented milk drinks thus far discussed are similar in that

* El., Metchnikoff, Prolongation of Life.

each contains a variety of microörganisms, made up of at least one species of yeast with one or more species of bacteria, capable of producing greater or less amounts of acid. In some, as in the case of kefir, the yeast fermentation is allowed to predominate, while in others, like yahourth, the action of the yeasts is held in check by the rapid development of the acid by the *Bact. bulgaricum.* All of these drinks are commonly recommended by physicians because of their beneficial effect upon the digestive tract.

ARTIFICIAL BUTTERMILK.—Quite recently there has developed an important industry in the manufacture of artificial buttermilk. This is usually made by inoculating skim milk with a culture of lactic bacteria, either our native *Bact. lactis acidi,* or one of the imported species, such as *Bact. bulgaricum.* In making the artificial buttermilk, yeasts are not commonly added. After the milk becomes coagulated, it is then churned in order to give it a smooth, creamy consistency, after which it may be bottled and kept for some time by holding at low temperatures. Sometimes a small percentage of whole milk is added at the time of churning to make the finished product more closely resemble natural buttermilk. In making artificial buttermilk, the skim milk is frequently pasteurized in order to get rid of the miscellaneous flora which it contains. The finished product, therefore, differs from ordinary buttermilk in the fact that it contains nearly pure cultures of the lactic organisms while the natural buttermilk will contain a more or less miscellaneous flora in which the acid organisms predominate. It is possible to obtain a more uniform product in the artificial buttermilk than in the natural product, and this is perhaps responsible for the rapid development of this industry.

FROZEN MILK.

Some effort has been made to put upon the market milk which has been frozen into cakes or bricks. This has been tried both in Europe and in this country. Some difficulty has been met in satisfactorily freezing the milk and holding it in a frozen condition. The process has proved to be rather expensive and not very satisfactory. One difficulty with this process seems to be that the quality of the frozen milk after it has been melted is not as good as it was before it was frozen. From a bacteriological standpoint, this process is of some interest, but it is doubtful whether it becomes of much importance commercially.

Ice Cream.

Ice cream is one of the important manufactured dairy products and its use seems to be increasing steadily. Its bacterial flora varies with the materials used in its manufacture and the conditions under which it is made. It may be made from fresh cream which is only a few hours old and under good sanitary conditions. On the other hand, it may be made from cream which has been produced and handled under unsanitary conditions, kept in storage for a number of days and finally manufactured in surroundings not conducive to a low bacterial content. We are not surprised, therefore, to find a very wide variation in the germ content of ice cream, as it is placed upon the market.

An examination of 263 samples of ice cream collected in the city of Washington* showed an average germ content of over 26,600,000 per c.c. The lowest count obtained was 37,500 and the maximum was 365,000,000. A similar study of commercial ice cream in Philadelphia† showed the average bacterial content to be very high. The lowest count found was 50,000 per c.c., while the highest count was 150,200,000. In this work it was found that the bacterial content of the ice cream was in quite direct relation to the sanitary conditions of the establishment where the ice cream was manufactured. When ice cream is manufactured in a city from materials which have been shipped in from considerable distances and frequently held for several days in cold storage, it is not surprising that the germ content of the manufactured product should be high. In some establishments the cream is pasteurized before manufacturing, while in others it is used in its raw condition.

In normal cream held for sometime, the lactic bacteria should exist in considerable numbers, but when cream is held at low temperatures these organisms do not develop rapidly. Pennington found that certain species of streptococci developed quite rapidly in cream held at refrigerator temperatures. Streptococci were found in fifty-five (80 per cent) of the sixty-eight samples examined. It was found that at refrigerator temperatures the relative growth of these organisms was greater than at higher temperatures, a fact which may account, in part at least, for the frequency with which this organism occurs in ice cream.

Frequently ice cream is held for a considerable time in a frozen condition before it is sold. It has generally been supposed that there is no

* Results of work done under the direction of Dr. G. W. Stiles.

† Work done under the direction of Dr. M. E. Pennington.

bacterial growth in material which is held below the freezing temperature. This, however, did not seem to be the case in samples examined by the investigators already mentioned. They found in samples held about a month that there was normally a decrease in the bacterial count and also in the amount of gas production for a number of days, after which there was frequently a marked increase in the bacterial counts. These results would seem to indicate that even in the frozen condition there may be some increase in the number of bacteria present. The number of these experiments, however, is not sufficient to justify very general conclusions. The work of Conn and Esten* in holding milk at 1° may throw some light upon this question.

If the cream from which the ice cream is made has been produced and handled under sanitary conditions, the bacterial content should consist chiefly of organisms of the *Bact. lactis acidi* type, in which case the high count in the ice cream might not be objectionable. If, on the other hand, the cream has been held in cold storage for some time under conditions which inhibit the growth of the lactic organisms and permit the development of putrefactive types, bacterial poisons may be developed in the cream, which will be highly objectionable. There seems to be little doubt that this is the cause of the cases of ptomain poisoning, resulting from the use of ice cream. It is known that certain types of bacteria, especially those belonging to the so-called putrefactive group, are capable of developing at very low temperatures and can, therefore, produce considerable quantities of toxic products in the cream. Whether or not these products are developed before the cream is manufactured or whether they may develop in the frozen product cannot at present be stated. In general it can be said that the total bacterial count does not indicate the wholesomeness of the ice cream any more than does a similar count in buttermilk or in the commercial fermented-milk drinks. The kinds of organisms present is a far more important question from the standpoint of the wholesomeness of the ice cream.

* Annual Report, Storr's Experiment Station, 1901.

DIVISION V.

MICROBIOLOGY OF SPECIAL INDUSTRIES.

CHAPTER I.

DESICCATION, EVAPORATION, AND DRYING OF FOODS.

FACTORS THAT BRING ABOUT CHANGES IN DRIED FOODS.

The factors that bring about changes in dried foods may be considered under two general heads, chemical and microbial. Enzymes, although the product of living cells, may represent the chemical changes, and the activity of bacteria, yeasts and molds, the microbial changes. Enzymes are normally present in food stuffs derived from animals or plants which have not been subjected to heating. All living cells contain enzymes, and these may remain active for a considerable time after the death of the cell. Some of these enzymes attack carbohydrates, some fats, some proteins, and some other compounds. Enzymes are responsible for the stiffening of the muscles after death (*rigor mortis*), others later break down the tissues and bring about a ripening of meat whereby it becomes more tender. Autolytic enzymes may in some instances produce rancidity in food products by a splitting of the fats. Bacterial enzymes are known that duplicate the action of practically all those produced by higher animals and plants. Some of the changes produced are desirable, others undesirable, particularly if action is allowed to continue for too long a time. In foods dried for preservation, it is therefore important that sufficient heat be used to destroy the enzymes or that enough water be removed to inhibit their activity. Ordinarily the activity of enzymes will be inhibited by the removal of water sufficient to prevent the growth of microörganisms. The action of enzymes is characterized as reversible, that is, after a certain concentration of enzymic products has been reached, the transformation ceases until a part of the accumulation has been removed by diffusion or otherwise. Since many of these actions

* Prepared by R. E. Buchanan.

are hydrolytic in nature, water for both diffusion and hydrolysis must be present before the enzyme can act.

Bacteria are introduced in large numbers when food is handled and probably constitute the most important factor in its destruction. If moisture and temperature conditions are favorable, they bring about undesirable changes. The amount of water present in foods may be used as a basis for their classification into four groups: first, those in which moisture is present in appreciable quantities in the interstices, that is, those which seem *wet*. Under these conditions bacteria not only multiply but spread rapidly through the medium by actual space growth by diffusion currents, and by their own motion. Second, some foods may contain sufficient moisture for the abundant growth of bacteria, but not free water for diffusion and distribution. In these the spread of infection must be largely by direct growth of the organism and will necessarily be slower than in the preceding. Third, the substratum may be so dry that little or no growth of organisms may take place, yet there is sufficient moisture so that they remain viable. Fourth, the food may be so dry that only those organisms that can withstand relatively complete desiccation will survive. These groups cannot be differentiated entirely upon the basis of the percentage of water present, for the character of the food itself and of the material in solution are also important.

Yeasts usually require sugars for their best development and are therefore commonly present in foods containing this substance. They are of importance therefore in fewer foods than bacteria. In nature, they are frequently found upon fruits, particularly those which contain considerable quantities of sugar in the sap. They will be found also upon the cut ends of twigs or grass culms where sugary sap has oozed out. Colonies of considerable size may sometimes be seen upon corn stubble during damp weather. They are commonly distributed by flies and other insects which feed upon the sugary plant juices. They are not motile, hence the spread of infection in any food must be by direct growth.

Molds, like bacteria, are ubiquitous and under proper conditions will destroy almost any food. They grow readily in solutions and on saturated substrata, but ordinarily are prevented by the bacteria which find the optimum condition for their growth in such conditions. For example, it is commonly observed that wet silage rots when exposed to air supports a luxuriant growth of bacteria, while drier silage becomes moldy.

Unlike bacteria, the molds extend through and over food when there is no visible water film. The spores are much better adapted to air dispersal than are bacterial cells, and the hyphæ penetrate more rapidly than will the bacterial colony. In certain foods, therefore, as meals and flours, molds are more destructive than are the bacteria. Usually they will multiply with less moisture.

Inhibition of Growth of Microörganisms in Dried Food.

In a few cases, the development of microörganisms is prevented by the absence of sufficient moisture in the medium to support growth. This is not nearly so common as might appear at first thought. It occurs in some foods, as olive oil, starches, meals, cane sugar, etc., that have little or no free water. Frequently the drying results in a concentration of the solutes, beyond the point to which microörganisms can adapt themselves to the osmotic pressure. When it is remembered that a 50 per cent solution of cane sugar is capable of exerting a pressure of nearly 226.796 kg. (500 pounds) per square inch, it will be realized that considerable readjustment is necessary in the cell of a yeast plant that can grow in such a medium. Drying also sometimes changes the former relationship of cells and tissue constituents so that protective layers may be formed. For example, in curing pork, the fat which is structurally isolated in distinct cells for the most part becomes diffused throughout the outer layers of the tissues and forms a water-free and water-proof exterior. Foods are sometimes subjected during the process of drying to sufficient heat to destroy the microörganisms contained. At other times they are exposed to the germicidal action of the direct rays of the sun or to the fumes of some disinfectant or bleaching agent as sulphur dioxid or smoke.

Methods of Drying.

The reduction of the water in foods below the minimum required for the growth of microörganisms is accomplished in a variety of ways. Most commonly heat is employed, either the sun's ray or some artificial source. In localities where the humidity of the air is low, as in many of the irrigated fruit districts of the western United States, exposure to the rays of the sun results in rapid drying. With other types of foods and in more humid regions, artificial heat is used to reduce this relative humidity. Some foods cannot be dried at high temperatures because of their instability. In most cases such foods must be dried

quickly for they are readily attacked by microörganisms. These are usually dried at a low temperature and in a partial vacuum. Other foods are dried without recourse to evaporation by the use of the hydraulic press or by centrifugal action, the latter in the manufacture of cane sugar. The water available for the growth of microörganisms may be reduced by the addition of some crystalline substance such as sugar or salt. The usefulness of the latter depends largely upon their ability to create a concentration of solutes too great for the growth of bacteria. At the same time a considerable proportion of the water from that part of the food into which the solutes will not penetrate, is abstracted by osmosis.

Many food products do not require any additional drying, as they naturally contain little moisture. Such are the grains and the products manufactured from them, as flour. The drying in this instance has occurred during the ripening process of the grain. When for any reason this does not occur, the grain will mold. It has been found necessary in many instances to kiln-dry corn. Grain, nuts, etc., are by their nature adapted to keep under normal conditions for considerable periods. Other foods require artificial drying. In these we have the intergrading classes, which have been discussed above, those which contain a very small percentage of water and those which have considerable water but a high concentration of solutes. The absolute amount of water in the food is by no means an index to the amount that is available for the growth of microörganisms. Many foods are hygroscopic. Foods having the same water content and percentage of solutes will behave very differently with reference to delivering up the water to any organism present.

The effect of the concentration of solutes by drying is perhaps the most important factor in the preservation of food. These substances dissolved in the water may be actually antiseptic when concentrated, as the acids of the juices of certain fruits. More often the sugars reach a concentration so great as to prevent growth by plasmolyzing the cell contents of the organisms. For every organism there is a maximum concentration reached sooner or later, beyond which growth is impossible.

Dried foods may be divided into three groups, using the relative abundance of *carbohydrates, fats*, and *proteins* as a basis for classification.

Carbohydrate foods are usually preserved by drying. Many, such as grains and nuts and the flours and meals prepared from them, do not require artificial heating. They are, however, somewhat hygroscopic and in damp climates enough moisture is taken up to allow the growth of

injurious molds and bacteria. Moldy corn has long been regarded as the probable cause of the disease, called pellagra, in man. Still other carbohydrate food stuffs require more or less care in the drying or curing, such as hay and fodder in general. This is usually dried by simple exposure to the air and sun until most of the water has been evaporated. Fodder that has become moldy through the presence of too much moisture is a prolific cause of trouble in horses and less frequently in cattle. The many deaths due to the so-called equine cerebrospinal meningitis are suspected many times to be due to the consumption of moldy hay. In localities where the air is too moist or it rains so frequently as to make it difficult to dry hay, curing is effected by a process of self fermentation. The hay is piled in a mass while still green and undergoes a process of heating. The temperature rises usually to about 70°. The causes of this rise are somewhat uncertain, but it is probably due to the combined action of enzymes and microörganisms. Just how much of this keeping quality is due to the heating, how much to the loss of water, and how much to the accumulation of products of fermentation is uncertain. In other cases, the heated hay is spread out and quickly dries sufficiently so that it may be stored. A certain small percentage of the nutriment of the hay is necessarily lost in the development of the heat energy.

Fruits are quite generally preserved by drying. In many instances, as in peaches, apples, and berries, it is probable that enough moisture is usually removed to prevent organisms from growing, but in many other cases, as in the preparation of currants and raisins, the concentration of the sugar and other solutes is the controlling factor. Frequently as much as 30 per cent of the dried fruits is water. Fruit drying is often accomplished by the heat of the sun's rays, in other cases artificial heat or even hydraulic presses are used.

Many manufactured products, particularly baker's goods, as crackers, biscuits, dried yeast cakes, etc., are preserved by the elimination of water.

Macaroni and vermicelli are prepared by forcing a thick paste of expecially prepared flour and water through openings of different sizes. The product is then dried in the air until it is brittle and may then be kept indefinitely.

Copra, one of the principal exports of certain of the islands of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, is prepared by cutting the meat of the cocoanut into pieces and drying them in the sun. From this copra, our desiccated and powdered cocoanut is prepared.

Syrups, molasses, jellies, jams, and many other carbohydrate foods are preserved through the concentration of the solutes. Many of these

are partially sterilized by the heat used in the process of manufacture, but there is usually plenty of opportunity for subsequent infection. They are more frequently attacked by molds and yeasts than by bacteria. An exception may be noted in *Streptococcus mesenterioides* which sometimes causes considerable trouble by a gelatinous fermentation in syrups from which sugars are manufactured commercially.

Foods with considerable quantities of *fat* usually contain little water. Cottonseed, olive and other vegetable oils, the plant and animal fats, as lard, tallow, and butter, are quite resistant to change by bacteria unless water is present. With these foods the water is necessary for the growth of the organism and also for the activity of the lipolytic enzymes, which might hydrolyze fats and aid in the development of rancidity. Butter forms an exception to the rule that fat foods contain little water, as it usually has from 12 to 16 per cent. Where it is necessary to keep butter-fat for long periods or under unfavorable conditions, it is melted, the water removed, and the clear fat preserved. Bacteria, enzymes, and a few molds have been described that attack fats. In the process of preparation or manufacture of many fat foods, sufficient heat is used to sterilize the material and infection thereafter spreads to the interior very slowly. The heat destroys the enzymes as well as the bacteria.

The third class of *foods* preserved by drying includes those that contain a high percentage of *protein*, in large part flesh foods and flesh derivatives.

Desiccation, however, is only one of the agencies acting to preserve the flesh.

Jerked meat is sometimes prepared in localities with a hot dry climate. Lean meat is cut into thin slices and exposed to the direct rays of the sun until dry. The bactericidal action of the sunlight and the rapid extraction of moisture prevents microörganisms from producing undesirable changes during the curing process.

Dried beef is lean meat which usually has been treated with certain condiments or smoked and salted and then dried.

Dried fish such as cod, mackerel, and herring, is prepared by the use of condiments, salt, and smoke in addition to the drying.

Pemmican is prepared by drying lean meat, grinding it, and mixing it with sugar and fat, dried fruits, spices, etc. It is highly nutritious, not unpalatable, and compact, and will keep for a long period. It is frequently used as a concentrated form of food by Arctic explorers, etc.

Beef extract is prepared by cooking minced beef and water in a receptacle under a slight steam pressure. The digestion is continued for several hours. The liquid is filtered off and concentrated in a partial vacuum to the desired consistency.

Gelatin is prepared by boiling bones and tendons, sometimes also horn and hide scraps and concentrating the gelatin which dissolves from these.

Somatose, sarco-peptone and related so-called predigested protein foods are mixtures of albumoses and peptones prepared by the artificial digestion and drying of proteins, usually flesh. The product is marketed as a powder.

Milk, either with or without its butter fat, is dried by being sprayed into a warm compartment from which the air is partly exhausted. It dries immediately, in the form of a very fine powder. This powder, if thoroughly dry, will keep well and is finding an extensive use. The high sugar content of this powder is instrumental in preventing the development of microörganisms (p. 366).

Eggs are dried in much the same manner as milk and the product is being used extensively at the present time by bakers.

Meats are frequently preserved by a combination of drying and the action of certain antiseptics. The salting of meat owes its effectiveness in part to the abstraction of water. In most cases, the surface of the meat and probably even the other portions are protected in large measure by the diffusion of the fat and the saturation of tissues and by the formation of water-proof fat films. The autolytic enzymes are active in the fresh meat and soon become inert upon the removal of water. The organisms responsible for decay of preserved meats and flesh foods are usually bacteria. Some of these break down the protein into simpler chemical compounds, of which a few are poisonous.

CHAPTER II.*

HEAT IN THE PRESERVATION OF FOOD PRODUCTS.

Historical Resumé.

The principle involved in the preservation of food by heat may be said to have had its origin in the experiments of Spallanzani, who in 1765 boiled meat extract in hermetically sealed flasks for an hour, after which treatment no change occurred in the material. An application of this principle was suggested as early as 1782 by the Swedish chemist, Scheele, who advised the exposure of vinegar in bottles to the temperature of boiling water in order to effect its preservation. Some years later the principle was applied to the conservation of food by a French confectioner, Nicholas Appert, who in 1811 published an exhaustive treatise on "The Art of Preserving Animal and Vegetable Substances." His method was to enclose the food in a glass jar which was then corked tightly, and placed in boiling water, the length of time of heating varying with the article treated.

In 1810 Peter Durand secured a patent from the English government for the preservation of fruits, vegetables and fish in hermetically sealed tin and glass cans. He did not claim to be the discoverer of the process, but said it had been communicated to him by a "foreigner residing abroad." Although the secret of the process was jealously guarded, the employees of different establishments became familiar with its essentials, and in this manner the industry found its way to America. One of the first to introduce the process was Ezra Daggett, who, with his son-in-law Thomas Kensett, in 1819 engaged in the manufacture of hermetically sealed goods, the principal foods packed being salmon, lobsters, and oysters. In 1820, William Underwood and Charles Mitchell, emigrant employees from a canning factory in England, opened a factory in Boston where they canned plums, quinces, cranberries and currants.

In the earliest days of canning, glass jars were used exclusively, but were gradually abandoned as it was found that they could not readily

* Prepared by S. F. Edwards.

withstand the extremes of temperature, and were expensive, bulky, and costly in transportation. In 1825, Thomas Kensett secured a patent on the use of tin cans in preserving food, and in the same year began using the process in his factory. The early manufacture of tin cans was by hand and crude, the bodies being cut with shears and the side seams made with a plumb joint (that is meeting but not overlapping), and then soldered together. Heads were made to set into the body and were soldered in place in a very crude manner. The making of 100 cans was considered a good day's work for one man. Improvements were gradually made, however, in their manufacture, until finally can making became a distinct industry and now all the parts are made and put together by mechanical devices.

In the original Appert process, the goods were cooked in open kettles, the highest temperature obtainable by this method being the boiling point. A little later common salt was used to aid in securing a higher temperature, and this was followed later by the use of calcium chloride which made possible a temperature of 115°. In 1874, a closed kettle was invented for superheating water with steam, and this was immediately followed by another improved kettle in which dry steam was used, the principle employed being that of the modern autoclav, by which method any desired temperature may be obtained and modified to suit the requirements of different classes of food.

Economic Importance.

From Standpoint of Health and Dietetics.—The value of a variety of foods, especially fruits and vegetables, is recognized by dieticians. Unfortunately, however, the season for fresh fruits and vegetables is comparatively short. Moreover, many foods grown exclusively in one section of country will not withstand shipping in a fresh condition to other sections. In spite of improved methods of refrigeration, it is not practicable to ship fresh sea foods to far inland towns, or to send some perishable products of warm climates to cold countries. The canning and preserving industry overcomes these difficulties by supplying pure, clean, wholesome fruits, vegetables, meats, and fish to any region the year round, and at prices comparatively low.

From Standpoint of Commerce.—In its commercial aspect, the importance of the industry can scarcely be estimated. Canned products

make possible the carrying of larger stores of provisions by armies and navies and expeditions for exploration than would otherwise be possible. In fact, the stimulus which prompted the investigation of Appert was a prize offered by the French Navy Department for a method of preserving foods for provisioning ships more satisfactory than by pickling, drying, or other methods in use up to that time.

Although the preserving industry was established in three great commercial centers in the United States as early as 1825, it did not become of much importance until the last quarter of a century. There were many hindrances to the progress of the industry, such as the secrecy observed in the process, skepticism of the public regarding the healthfulness of canned foods, the general prejudice against them, and the high cost of production. These obstacles have gradually been surmounted, and at the present time the several branches of the industry have collectively assumed large proportions.

An idea of the importance and magnitude of the industry in the United States and Canada may be gained from statistics for 1909 compiled by the National Canners' Association, the California Fruit Grower, and Dominion Canners Limited. In the United States the pack of tomatoes was 10,984,000 cases; of corn, 5,787,000 cases, and of peas 5,028,000 cases. This does not include fruits, the pack of which in California alone was 3,047,000 cases. Nor do these figures include the great variety of other vegetables, fruits from other states than California, meats or fish. In Canada the pack was estimated at approximately 3,000,000 cases. The average case holds two dozen cans, and sells at an approximate average price of two dollars and forty cents. It is apparent from these figures that the canning and preserving industry is one of immense value, and that it constitutes a large factor in the feeding of the race.

Alteration of Food.

Physical Changes. *Appearance.*—Some physical changes attend the conservation of foods by heat, approaching more or less closely the changes incident to the ordinary preparation of fresh foods for the table. In the preserving of some vegetables, notably peas and asparagus, the canner subjects them to a blanching process which consists in submitting the vegetables to the action of hot water for a short time, the object being, first, to remove the mucous substance from the outside and a part of the

green coloring matter so as to have a clear liquor in the can, and second, to drive water into the vegetables so that all will be tender. There is a consequent tendency toward a paleness in products which undergo the blanching process. Sometimes an artificial color is produced by the addition of small amounts of copper sulphate, but this practice has never become general in the United States.

Mechanical Disintegration.—In the case of very soft fruits or vegetables, the high temperature essential to sterilization causes a slight amount of mechanical disintegration, which is not objectionable, however, unless excessive, as there is little deterioration in appearance and none at all in food value. In the case of meats, practically the only physical change is the shrinkage during the parboiling previous to placing in cans.

CHEMICAL CHANGES. *Appearance.*—The chemical changes in foods preserved by heat may be considered under two heads: first, those in which the appearance is modified, and second, those in which the food itself is altered. Change of color often occurs and results from various causes. In colored vegetables, such as peas, string beans, and asparagus, a part at least of the loss of color is due to oxidation of the chlorophyl as a result of which the vegetables assume an unsightly yellowish or grayish green appearance. Goods may sometimes be discolored by the formation in the container of metallic sulphides which arise through the liberation of simple sulphur compounds, by decomposition of protein portions of the product, the sulphur afterward combining with the tin. Abnormal color is sometimes attributed to the presence of iron in the water used in the process. Some fruits packed in glass gradually lose their color by oxidation on exposure to the light.

Chemical Change.—So far as chemical alteration of the food itself is concerned, there is little change and none other than would occur in the ordinary preparation of the food for immediate consumption. The albumins are coagulated. The fats probably remain unchanged. Of the carbohydrates, the chief action is on the sugars. The cane sugar is wholly or partly inverted by the combined action of the heat and the fruit or vegetable acids. The starch undergoes little, if any, cleavage, inasmuch as this change only occurs in the presence of acids, and in foods with a high acid content the proportion of starch is relatively low. The other amyloses probably undergo little if any change.

Palatability and Digestibility.—It is often contended that canned foods are less palatable than fresh foods of the same kind. This deterio-

ration of agreeableness to the taste is, however, more seeming than real, and arises largely from prejudice of the consumer against food conserved in tin cans, rather than from any actual change. When the preserving is properly done, the product should be no less attractive to the eye, no less pleasing to the palate, and of no less value from the standpoint of digestibility than the same food when served in the fresh condition.

BIOLOGICAL CHANGES. *Vital Disorganization.*—The entire industry of conservation of foods by means of heat is based on a microbiological process. It is a universally recognized fact that the ordinary spoilage of food is a microbiological change, hence the individual desirous of protecting food from spoilage must give consideration to the microbial agents responsible for the change.

Normal Flora and Fauna.—Aside from a few types of organisms causing disease or specific poisonous conditions, we are unable to designate definite species as those causing canned goods to spoil. Considering the great variety of foods preserved by heat, and the different conditions under which they are grown and secured, it naturally follows that the normal flora and fauna of food to be preserved in this manner would embrace a wide variety of species, including molds, and spores of higher fungi, yeasts, bacteria, and animal parasites. Generally speaking, the microbial flora of fruits consists mostly of molds and yeasts, although bacterial forms may also be present. In the case of vegetables, and of fruits coming in contact with the earth, more species of bacteria are apt to be present, many of them spore formers able to withstand a high temperature. Finally, in meats and fish the living forms may include not only molds, yeasts, and bacteria, but animal forms as well, such as the organisms of tæniasis (tapeworm) and trichinosis. In the preserving industry, therefore, consideration must be given to all these forms, not only from the standpoint of the successful preservation of the various foods, but also from that of protecting the health of the consumer from possible poisonous substances present or produced in the conserved food, and from possible infection with pathogenic organisms present in the food before it is packed.

PASTEURIZATION.

ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS.—In the preservation of food by heat, two processes are applicable, pasteurization and sterilization. In pasteurization, the aim is not to effect the permanent preservation of foods or

drinks by destroying all life present, but rather to accomplish the specific purpose of destroying certain species of organisms in the material to be pasteurized, thus effecting a partial arrest of the natural fermentation along certain chosen lines by removing from the field of activity those organisms whose presence serves to inhibit or pervert the desired fermentative result.

The principle of pasteurization may be said to have originated in the early work of Spallanzani and Scheele, already mentioned, and was employed by Appert in his later investigations. The operation as employed by Appert does not, however, appear to have found general application until Pasteur revived the method, and as a result of his activities in attempting to secure a general adoption of the practice to prevent the spoiling of wine, the process was named from him.

SPECIFIC APPLICATION.—*Beer.*—Pasteurization is of economic importance particularly in the dairy and the fermentation industries. In brewing, "the process of pasteurization is in use with even the smallest brewers in the United States, beer being pasteurized even for local consumption." The beer is pasteurized in bottles by being submerged for one half-hour in water heated up to 60° to 65°. In European countries pasteurization of beer in jugs, as well as in bottles, is practised. Experiments have been made in pasteurizing beer in large metal containers, steel, copper, aluminum and tin having been tried, but without complete success as yet. The process destroys the flavor.

Fruit Juices.—The essentials in the pasteurization of wine and fruit juices are similar to those for beer. There is, however, no universal rule of application. Details of the process must be arranged to suit the character of the different liquids under treatment.

Cream and Milk.—Pasteurization as employed in the dairy industry varies in its method of application according to the purpose for which it is used. In factory butter-making, it must be employed to secure the best results. Milk as ordinarily received at creameries contains a widely variant microbial flora, many of the species exerting a greater or less influence in determining the flavor of the finished product. By pasteurization of the cream, the butter-maker destroys most of the organisms present, and by the use of a culture starter of lactic bacteria, a necessary concomitant of pasteurization, he is able to control definitely the fermentation and is assured of a uniform quality of product from day to day throughout a season. An added value of pasteurization is that thereby all pathogenic

organisms are destroyed, thus aiding in the prevention of such diseases as might otherwise be conveyed through this product. In creameries, the usual method of pasteurization is what is known as the continuous process, in which the milk is subjected to a momentary heating at about 85°, the flow through the pasteurizing apparatus being so regulated as to bring all the milk up to the desired temperature, the heating being immediately followed by rapid cooling, and subsequent addition of the lactic starter.

In the pasteurization of milk for infant or invalid feeding, a lower temperature is employed. A temperature sufficiently high to destroy the organism of tuberculosis (the standard for pasteurization) by momentary heating, imparts to the milk a cooked flavor, making it less palatable; coagulates some of the protein constituents, rendering it less digestible; and affects the enzymes present, thus "devitalizing" the milk. The desired end may be reached, however, by employing a lower temperature for a longer period of time, and the method generally recommended is to heat the milk to 60° to 65° for twenty minutes. This heating is sufficient to render harmless any pathogenic organisms likely to be present in milk, without the objectionable features attendant upon heating to a higher degree (p. 319).

Condensed Milk.—It is commonly stated that Gail Borden invented the process for preparing condensed milk in 1856. Previous to this, however, milk had been condensed in France, Germany and England as early as 1825 to 1835. While he cannot, therefore, be called the inventor of condensed milk, to Borden belongs the credit of having first prepared it by a rational process and in a practicable form.

In the manufacture of condensed milk, good fresh milk is evaporated in a vacuum pan similar to those used in sugar factories, at a temperature of 40° to 50°, until the volume is reduced to one-third or one-quarter of the original. The evaporation must be conducted with great care, otherwise the lactose crystallizes out and this causes the product to feel "sandy" on the tongue. Condensed milk is made either with or without the addition of cane sugar. When used at all, it is added in the proportion of about 10 to 12 per cent of the weight of the milk. When the evaporation of the milk is finished, the yellowish white syrup is sealed up in tins which hold about 450 g., and this quantity is equivalent to about 1 1/2 liters of normal milk. The addition of cane sugar acts as a preservative, and although the finished product may contain some living

organisms, it is said to keep indefinitely if unopened, and will even keep for a number of days after opening. Occasional losses do occur, however, by spoilage of the finished product, either from the growth of occasional types of bacteria tolerant of the high percentage of cane sugar, or from yeasts (p. 363).

Sterilization.

Economic Considerations.—For certain classes of food products, pasteurization is widely applicable, and is of immense value from an economic standpoint. Preservation by pasteurization is at best, however, temporary. Spores of spore-forming bacteria are certain to be present on many kinds of foods, and these, unharmed by pasteurizing temperatures, develop vegetative cells, and spoilage occurs.

For permanent preservation, therefore, sterilization must be adopted and it is upon the principle of sterilization, coupled with prevention of future contamination by hermetically sealing the container, that the whole canning and preserving industry is based. The method is applicable to nearly every class of food, and with less alteration in the food than any other method of conservation. The principle employed to-day is essentially the same as that used by Appert 100 years ago. Although he knew nothing of microörganisms or their relation to the spoilage of food, Appert's experiments taught him that not only must the food to be conserved be heated thoroughly, but that it must be so sealed as not to allow air to enter the container. In the light of microbiological science, it is clear that the success of the process depends, not upon keeping out the air, but upon keeping out organisms which are carried in the air.

Specific Application.—The process of preservation by sterilization is not so extensively practised for fruit juices and fermented liquids as that of pasteurization. If too high temperature is employed for fruit juices, certain compounds of agreeable taste and aroma are destroyed, with a consequent deterioration in the flavor of the product. Fruit juices may, however, be sterilized by heating at a low temperature for several successive days.

The method of Appert has its widest application in the conservation of fruits and vegetables, meats and fish. Whatever modifications are made in the handling of the different classes of foods the essentials are the same. The raw material after thorough cleaning and removal of waste if any, is filled into the cans and submitted to the sterilizing process, the degree of heat and time of processing varying with different products

From the character of the flora, fruits as a rule require a comparatively low temperature for sterilization, while some vegetables and meats require a very high temperature to destroy the bacterial spores sure to be present. Briefly, the methods employed in canning some foods follow:

Meat.—In the meat canning industry, lean meat is largely selected for two reasons. Fat, well-finished carcasses bring a better price when offered for sale in the fresh condition; and in the second place, lean meat has a better appearance in the canned state than fat meat. The selected meat is cut into pieces of approximately from 1 to 4 pounds in weight, according to the size of the tins in which it is to be preserved. The pieces are cut as nearly as practicable the same size, not only for purposes of appearance in the cans when opened, but also that the process of sterilization may be more uniformly carried out. If the pieces were of different size, the smaller ones would become thoroughly cooked and disintegrated before the larger ones were sterilized.

After the pieces have been selected and dressed they are parboiled before being placed in the containers, the time ranging from eight to twenty minutes, according to the size of the pieces of meat. The object of parboiling is to secure the shrinkage which always takes place on heating. Meats put into tins in the fresh state and sterilized shrink to about two-thirds of their original volume. When the meat is put directly into boiling water, there is less loss of protein than when the meat is placed in cold water and heated gradually. During parboiling, the meat loses about 1 per cent of the protein content, about one-third of the total meat bases, and 50 per cent of the mineral matter.

This shrinkage by parboiling tends to make a more concentrated article, thus favoring transportation, and, pound for pound, the nutritive value is not lowered. Practically, the nutritive value of a pound of properly canned beef is about one-third greater than that of 1 pound of fresh beef of the same kind. After parboiling, the meat is placed in tins, by hand or by machinery, and to each can is added a small quantity of "soup liquor," the manner of preparation of which is not disclosed by the packers. It may be regarded as a thin soup, the object of which is to fill up the spaces between the meat, and to add condimental substance to render the meat more palatable.

After the cans are filled, they are closed and processed in suitable retorts by steam under pressure, as previously described, the temperature ranging from 110° to 120°.

A modification of the usual method consists in exhausting the cans *in vacuo*, and automatically sealing them in the exhausted state, thus removing all the air and other gases, after which they are placed on an endless conveyor and dipped into an oil bath at a temperature of 115°, the speed of the conveyor being so regulated that the cans remain in the bath a sufficient length of time to complete sterilization before they are carried out at the opposite end. They are next carried automatically into a solution of carbonate of soda, and finally into pure water, after which they are dried, painted with a shellac or lacquer and labelled.

Fresh meats other than beef or pork are canned in a fresh state. Game and wild fowl, as well as domesticated chickens, ducks, geese, turkeys, and pigeons are used, the general process being as already described. Horse meat is used more or less commonly in some European countries, but probably rarely in the United States.

Fish.—The process of fish canning does not differ materially from that of other meats. On account of its proneness to rapid decomposition, especial care must be

observed that the fish are in a perfectly fresh state before canning, and that the sterilization be most thorough. Salmon is the principal fish for the preservation of which dependence is placed on sterilization alone, most fish being preserved by other methods.

Vegetables and Fruits.—Corn.—The young, tender ears of sweet corn are picked from the stalk, preferably in the early morning, keeping the husks on, and are taken in this condition to the factory. They are husked and the silks are removed and passed through machines with sets of knives which cut the grains evenly from the cob, care being observed not to cut the corn so closely as to cut off particles of the cob with the corn. After the corn is cut off the cob, some canners add a "syrup" of water, salt, and sugar, and cook the corn for a few minutes at a temperature of 80°, after which it is filled into cans, sealed and sterilized. Another method is to fill the uncooked corn directly into the cans, fill them with "syrup," hermetically seal, and sterilize. The temperature employed varies somewhat, but usually lies between 110° and 120° for thirty minutes for pints. Proportionately longer time is required for larger packages. Most of the operations are carried on by machinery. The sterilization is sometimes done in the ordinary canners' retort, or the cans may be placed on an endless conveyor, dipping into water or brine of a proper temperature, the speed of the conveyor being so regulated that the cans are sufficiently heated to sterilize them during the passage.

Peas.—In the pea canning industry the vines are cut with a mower, loaded on to racks like hay, and hauled to the vining machines. The viner is a machine consisting of an outer and an inner cylinder revolving in opposite directions, the inner one bearing paddles or beaters so arranged that as the vines pass through the machine the paddles break open the pods. As the peas are thrown out they pass through perforations in the outer cylinder, while the vines are discharged at the opposite end. The shelled peas are next washed to remove all dirt and also the mucous substance from the surface, thus insuring a clearer liquor in the can. They are next graded for quality. This is accomplished by passing them through tanks containing salt solutions of different densities. The first grade includes all peas which will float in a salt solution having a specific gravity of 1.040. The second grade consists of all peas which will float in a solution of specific gravity 1.070, while the third grade consists of peas which will sink in the latter solution. Grading for size is next done by passing the peas over sieves, or into a revolving cylinder having four sections with perforations of different sizes. The small peas are of the best quality, and the quality decreases as the size of the peas increases. The peas are next blanched in hot water to remove the mucous covering, and to drive water into the peas so that all will be tender. The time of blanching varies from one-half to one minute to five or more minutes, large mature peas requiring longer for the blanching than smaller ones. After blanching the peas are filled into the cans by special machines, the cans are filled with "liquor" consisting of water, salt, and sugar, sealed and sterilized. The time of processing varies considerably, the average being 115° for twenty-five to forty minutes for the ordinary sized can.

Fruits.—The essentials in the canning of fruits do not differ from those for vegetables. Stone fruits may be canned either with or without the pits. In case of such fruits as cherries, or other acid fruits, the tin container must be coated on the inside with some substance which will protect the tin from the galvanic action of the juice, which when it occurs causes a deterioration in color of the fruit. The time and temperature of

processing of fruits is usually less than that required for vegetables, for the reason that in the presence of the fruit acids the organisms are more easily destroyed than in foods in which acids are not present.

Controlling Factors in Successful Canning.

Cleanliness.—Too much emphasis could hardly be placed upon the importance of cleanliness throughout the whole preserving process, and especially in the preparation of the product for preserving. Vegetables and fruits that have come in contact with the soil are pretty certain to harbor many spores of bacteria, and if as many of these are removed as is possible by thorough preliminary cleansing, sterilization may be affected with greater ease and surety. The necessity of cleanliness on the part of factory employees is needful only of mention, not only from the æsthetic standpoint, but also from that of good health.

The Soundness of Raw Material.—The necessity of sound and wholesome raw material is fully as great as that of cleanliness of handling. Foods are never so good as when they are fresh, providing they are sound. It makes no difference how long nor by what method they may be cooked, the quality cannot be bettered; and if food is unsound when it is put into containers for canning, it will never be wholesome for food; and this fact is equally true whether the unsoundness is the result of diseased conditions on meats, fruits or other products, or whether it is due to ordinary decay.

Water Supply.—Another essential for the success of the canner is an ample supply of pure water, chemically and bacteriologically. Water containing iron or sulphur compounds cannot be used for syruping or brining operations, nor is a water containing any percentage of iodine or bromine permissible. It is a well-known bacteriological fact that outbreaks of spoilage have occurred in canneries which could be traced to organisms getting into the goods from the water supply.

Receptacle.—The commercial canner recognizes two essentials for suitable containers for his goods, and these are equally important for the home canner. First, they must be tight, both to prevent the escape of the contained product and the entrance of contaminating material. Second, they must be of a material which will withstand erosion or corrosion for a reasonable length of time without giving up any notable quantity of foreign material to the food product with which they may be in contact. Glass is most satisfactory from this consideration, but for

reasons previously stated it is impracticable for use on a commercial scale. The difficulty from erosion in tins is partly overcome by coating the interior of the can with an enamel or lacquer which is not affected by the heat of sterilization, nor by chemical action of the contained material within a reasonable length of time.

DEGREE OF HEAT REQUIRED.—The actual sterilization of food products after placing in the containers is termed by the commercial canner processing, and he appreciates fully that upon the care with which the processing is done depends the success of the entire pack. The degree of heat necessary to accomplish sterilization varies considerably with different products.

One factor lies in the chemical composition of the fruits or vegetables to be sterilized. It is, for example, well known that peas and asparagus are rendered germ-free with much greater difficulty than beans, notwithstanding the fact that the heating of the can contents of the former is accomplished much more easily than that of the latter. The higher acid content of the beans facilitates the sterilization, and this same principle holds true in a broad way for all products of an acid character. The canner and the housewife have long known that tomatoes were easy to preserve as compared with other vegetables. The canner also finds a variation from season to season. In some seasons the acid content of fruit and vegetable products will be higher than in others, and consequently a lower processing temperature will suffice for sterilization.

In sterilization under pressure, as in the canners' retort, it is important that the steam forced into the autoclaves should completely displace all the air, for otherwise at a certain pressure the corresponding temperature will not be obtained. Large cans require a longer time for thorough heating than small cans; closely packed cans are heated with greater difficulty than loosely packed ones; the inner temperature is frequently lower than that of the outer parts of the can.

In addition to these factors, the canner must consider the possible presence or absence of bacterial spores, which may gain entrance to his factory, and necessitate a higher temperature than that usually employed to accomplish the desired result.

STORAGE.—Canned goods should be stored in a cool temperature. With some foods, there is a slow physico-chemical change occurring even in the absence of microörganisms by which the texture is loosened with consequent deterioration in value. These changes proceed very slowly,

being hardly noticeable in two or three years, and the change will be even more gradual at a low temperature.

Spoliation of Pasteurized and Sterilized Goods.

Chemical.—Aside from the change just mentioned, the chief chemical action is that of the fruit acids on the tin containers, with consequent formation of poisonous salts of lead or tin. The use of enamelled cans, however, effectually prevents electrolysis from the action of the fruit acids on the tin with impairment of color of the product, and also prevents formation of lead or tin salts.

A kind of spoilage which sometimes occurs in goods packed with the seeds or with the pits, and which causes a bulging of the ends of the cans, designated by the canner as "springers" or "flippers," is caused by insufficient heat being applied during the processing to destroy the germ of the seed.

Microbiological changes occur when the goods have not been processed at a temperature sufficiently high to destroy all microörganisms which may have been present in the uncooked product. In some instances, the organisms present decompose the contents of the can, with the formation of gas, causing bulging of the cans, sometimes to the point of bursting at the seams. Such cans are designated at the factory as "swells" in distinction from the springers mentioned above. In other instances the bacteria in the imperfectly sterilized cans produce an acid fermentation, with consequent souring of the contents. Such cans are termed "sours" by the canner.

Spoilage may occasion great monetary loss, as sometimes a whole season's pack may be lost.

Detection of Spoiled Goods.—In cases of spoilage accompanied with gas production, detection of the spoiled cans is usually easy, from the swelled appearance of the can. On account of the exhaustion of air from the cans during processing, the ends of sound cans should be slightly concave. If, then, the ends of the cans are convex, it indicates some abnormal condition of the contents, and such cans should be rejected. In the case of sours, detection is not so easy. The can may appear normal, and there may be no change in the contents apparent to the eye on opening the can. Taste, however, reveals a more or less pronounced disagreeable acid flavor.

Canned meats, fish, or crustaceans are likewise liable to spoilage if sterilization has been imperfectly carried out. In these goods the change may or may not be accompanied by gas production, but detection is usually comparatively easy because of the objectionable odors and flavors present. The degradation products from the breaking down of these foods sometimes possess poisonous properties.

Disposal of Factory Refuse.

The disposal of the factory refuse has at times become a serious problem to the commercial canner. Of late years, however, methods have been devised for utilizing much of the material that formerly was allowed to accumulate about the factory in fermenting heaps to the extent of sometimes becoming a nuisance to the neighborhood.

At pea canneries several methods of utilising the vines are in use. They may be converted into silage, either by putting into silos or stacking in large stacks. In some sections the pea vines are cured for hay. They are also valuable as a soiling crop, and as a fertilizer.

Corn husks and cobs are also utilized for silage. Experiments were made by the United States Department of Agriculture on the feasibility of using the refuse from the canning of corn for the production of alcohol. It was found that, on account of the expensive machinery and other apparatus required in the manufacture, a small factory could not profitably utilize the corn waste for alcohol. It was shown, however, that where several factories were located within a short radius, by shipping their wastes to a central plant, they might be utilized to advantage.

In the canning of tomatoes, many factories manufacture the cores, mutilated and inferior tomatoes into pulp which is stored in barrels, to be made up later into the cheaper grades of catsup. The skins are usually hauled out for fertilizer, although they "may be used as a filler for cayenne pepper, and for 'cattle spice'." The tomato seeds are sometimes graded for size, the larger ones being used for seed, and the smaller for the manufacture of a yellow dye stuff.

Apples cores, "chops," peelings, etc., are usually either used for vinegar making, or are made up into apple jelly. From one factory visited by the writer, the apple cores and peelings were dried, baled, and shipped to Europe "to be made up into champagne."

Peach pits are sometimes sold to nurserymen for seed. Sometimes the pits are cracked and the meats removed and used for almond meats. In many factories no use is made of the peach stones.

In the classes of food in which the amount of waste is not large, the refuse is either hauled away to a dumping ground near the factory, or is taken away by farmers for its manurial value.

CHAPTER III.*

THE PRESERVATION OF FOOD BY COLD.

Introduction.

In recent times cold storage has become of very great importance in the preservation of perishable food stuffs, and foods preserved by cold usually command a higher market price than those preserved by other methods. This is probably due primarily to the fact that the general appearance of refrigerated food resembles that of the perfectly fresh article, in many instances very closely. Moreover, in many instances cold storage, for a reasonable length of time, preserves not only the appearance and the nutritive value, but also the chemical composition, and even the delicate flavors of the original articles, so important in determining market value. The great economic importance of this industry is at once apparent, for it aims to preserve unchanged the over-abundance of one locality for transportation to another, and the over-production of one season of the year for subsequent use.

The Effects of Refrigeration upon Food Stuffs in General.

The decomposition of foods depends upon the activity of their own intrinsic enzymes to some extent, but more especially upon the activity of foreign microörganisms—bacteria, yeasts and molds. Cold acts as a preservative, not by destroying these microbes, but by retarding or inhibiting their activity. In general, cold not only retards the growth of the microörganisms but delays their death also, tending to preserve them as well as the food stuff unchanged.

In discussing the refrigeration of foods we may consider three periods of treatment, (1) the removal of the heat or chilling of the food, (2) the prolonged storage at low temperature, (3) the subsequent warming of the food before sale or consumption.

Changes during Chilling.—The period of cooling is a relatively

* Prepared by W. J. MacNeal.

short one, varying from a few hours to a few days in length. The chief physical change is the intentional removal of heat by conduction and convection, but there is usually also some loss of water by evaporation. If cooled to a sufficient degree the water content of the food may crystallize, altering to a considerable extent the physical structure of the food substance (frozen food). Most foods are either actually living when chilling begins, or they are only recently dead and various chemical changes due to intrinsic enzymes continue at a diminishing rate as the heat is removed. Decomposition changes due to microbes may also be in progress and continue during the process of chilling. At this time the microbes living in the cold-storage chamber gain access to the newly arrived food stuff, others are added in the process of handling. The extent to which these will grow and multiply depends upon their ability to flourish under the storage conditions. In general the bacteria which flourish at ordinary temperatures, producing the familiar decomposition of the particular food, are greatly retarded in their activities and other kinds outstrip them under the new conditions. The changes taking place during chilling are very important in some special instances, and often a very definite procedure must be followed to obtain a satisfactory result.

Changes during Storage.—This is often a relatively long period and causes acting very slowly may ultimately produce marked alteration. There is ordinarily some loss of water by evaporation, as well as the evaporation or diffusion of other volatile constituents, some of them at times important factors in the flavor of the food. Other volatile substances may be absorbed from the air of the storage room. The chemical changes of the chilling period continue at a greatly diminished rate, or may be entirely inhibited if the food is frozen. The behavior of the microbic content of the food is the most important factor to be considered during this period. Besides those already present, various other microörganisms, bacteria, yeasts or molds, may gain access to the food from time to time, either from the circulating air or by contact with other things. The fate of the implanted microbes will depend upon their nature and adaptation to the conditions existing in the stored food. Many of them perish, but many also survive the entire period of storage, and some may actively multiply. There can no longer be any doubt that some bacteria can grow at the temperature of zero, and many kinds multiply at a fraction of a degree above that point. In order definitely

to inhibit microbic activity, the food must be frozen. When it is not frozen, bacteria continue to multiply slowly at the lowest temperature of storage, and small variations in the temperature and in the humidity of the atmosphere serve to accelerate their activity. Such variations also accelerate diffusion currents in the food substance and so tend to distribute the microörganisms and their products. The extent of the resulting chemical changes in the food will depend upon these factors and upon the nature of the food, the temperature and the length of the period of storage.

CHANGES AFTER STORAGE.—This is a relatively short period, but in many instances a very important one as regards change in the food stuff. If warmed too rapidly, vigorous currents may be set up in the food mass by the great difference in temperature between the outer portion and the interior, serving to distribute microörganisms and their products. In the case of frozen foods rapid warming fails to restore the original physical structure. Dry cold food stuffs are likely to condense moisture from the warmer atmosphere unless it is particularly dry, and this condensed water becomes another cause of diffusion currents. In frozen foods the water, in melting, may fail to reënter the food structure, and exude and drip away, carrying a portion of the soluble constituents with it. At this time still more microbes are likely to be added to the food, and, together with those already present, they multiply with increasing rapidity as the temperature rises. As they may be already pretty well distributed throughout the mass of the food, the resulting chemical decomposition is the more rapid. It is well recognized that, in keeping qualities, foods removed from cold storage are much inferior to the corresponding fresh foods.

REFRIGERATION OF CERTAIN FOODS.

MEAT, FISH AND POULTRY.—Meat, in this sense the flesh of mammals, is preserved by cold in two ways, by storage above the freezing-point (chilled meat) and by storage at $-10°$ to $-4°$ (frozen meat). Fish and poultry are usually frozen for storage, the former often in the undrawn condition, the latter sometimes so.

Mammals killed for chilled or for frozen meat are slaughtered and carefully dressed. For chilled meat the temperature is reduced by storage in a cold air chamber to about $+2°$ in 48 hours, and the meat is stored at a

temperature between $+1°$ and $+2°$. Under these conditions the enzymes of the dead flesh continue to act and bacterial decomposition proceeds slowly, bringing about a process of ripening which, up to a certain point, improves the market value of the flesh by making it more tender and giving to it a more desirable flavor. The extent to which the slow bacterial decomposition may proceed before the flavor becomes disagreeable varies with different tastes, but in general the beginning of proteolytic change which follows after the almost complete fermentation of the muscle sugar may be said to mark the desirable limit. This point is reached in from a week to three months, depending upon the condition of the animal, skill and care in slaughter and dressing, especially the extent of bacterial contamination at this time, and the accurate control of the storage conditions. In the production of frozen meat the carcasses are rapidly chilled in an air chamber at $-20°$, where the meat remains until frozen solid. It is then kept at a temperature below $-4°$. Freezing produces a marked change in the finer physical structure of the meat, as the water crystallizes, leaving the protein material with which it was formerly intimately mixed in a shrunken and shriveled state between the crystals. Enzymic and bacterial activities are practically if not absolutely suspended under these conditions, and, save for slight surface evaporation, such meat remains unchanged for long periods. The subsequent thawing presents certain difficulties and requires particular care. If warmed very slowly the melting water crystals are imbibed by the protein material and the original structure of the flesh almost completely restored. The warmer air must be dry and must be kept in motion to avoid condensation of moisture on the exterior of the thawing meat. Bacterial activity is likely to gain considerable headway during this process and the penetration of the microbes into the flesh is favored by the diffusion currents. The more prolonged the warming process the greater the opportunity for bacterial decomposition. Ordinarily, in order to avoid this, the thawing is carried out rapidly and the finer structure of the meat is not restored. It is softer, darker, and more moist than fresh or chilled meat, and usually sells at a lower market price.

Fish and poultry are usually frozen for storage. As these foods are especially subject to rapid objectionable decomposition changes they are rapidly chilled by immersion in ice water or packing in ice immediately after death, and are frozen as quickly as possible. During storage in the frozen condition microbic activity is suspended, but in the subsequent

thawing the same physical and biological changes occur as in frozen meat. When fish and poultry are stored in the undrawn condition there is an abundant supply of bacteria at hand in the intestinal contents ready to multiply energetically during the chilling and thawing stages. Practically, the presence of the entrails has been found objectionable in the case of frozen poultry because of the ease and rapidity with which poisonous decomposition changes take place in this kind of food. It is desirable that skill and care in killing and dressing should be employed in the preparation of frozen poultry, and that the chilling period should be shortened as much as possible. The tendency of such food rapidly to undergo decomposition changes after thawing should be clearly recognized. Its sale as fresh or as chilled food is a fraud upon the purchaser.

The nature and source of the bacteria which produce poisonous changes in poultry are not definitely known, but there is some evidence indicating that they belong to the para-colon group and that they are derived from the intestinal contents of the fowls.

EGGS.—The cold storage of eggs is an industry which has attained large proportions in recent years. A very constant storage temperature between $+0.5°$ and $+1°$ is essential for the best results. The humidity of the atmosphere is also of very great importance, as a dry air causes extensive evaporation from the egg and a too moist air favors the development of microörganisms on the exterior of the shell and the absorption of their products and even their penetration into the egg. A constant humidity of 70 per cent saturation has been found to be the best. Storage at this temperature and humidity greatly retards the growth of microörganisms and definitely inhibits the ordinary putrefaction of eggs. The activity of the intrinsic enzymes of the egg are not necessarily inhibited by this temperature, nor is the growth of all microörganisms prevented. Unquestionably there is a marked difference between the ordinary cold-storage egg and the strictly fresh egg, but to what extent this deterioration may be due to errors in storage such as inaccurate control of temperature and humidity, use of odoriferous crates for packing, decomposition changes previous to storage, too rapid chilling of the eggs, or too rapid warming of them after removal from storage, and to what extent it is inherent in the most perfect cold-storage procedure, is still somewhat uncertain. Doubtless a certain amount of deterioration, especially the loss of the peculiar flavor of the fresh egg, is unavoidable in any method of prolonged storage. The discrimination in price in favor of new-laid

eggs in the market is an indication of difference in actual value, and the sale of cold-storage eggs for new-laid or strictly fresh eggs is generally recognized as a fraud by the purchaser and doubtless will in time be so recognized by law. The cold-storage egg is nevertheless a very valuable food and the economic importance of saving the over-abundant supply produced during the spring for use during the colder season of the year makes this industry a great benefaction to the public. Suitable regulation may be expected to remove its objectionable features.

MILK AND BUTTER.—Milk as ordinarily sold at retail is not subject to sufficient seasonal change in market price to make its prolonged storage advisable. But milk is so rapidly changed by bacterial activity at ordinary temperatures that efficient dairy methods necessarily include prompt cooling of the milk after it is drawn from the animal, and the maintenance of a low temperature until it is delivered to the consumer. At the low temperature bacteria slowly multiply, unless the milk is actually frozen, but at a temperature slightly above the freezing-point very clean milk may be kept in perfect condition for a week, and it may be kept sweet for several weeks. Refrigeration of milk cannot compensate for unhealthy animals producing it, nor for careless and uncleanly methods of handling. The cold does not destroy the microbes in the milk but only retards their multiplication and chemical activity. In practice, especially in the transportation of milk into large cities it is frequently most economical to freeze the milk and trust to insulation and the latent cold in the ice to maintain a low temperature during transportation. Such milk should arrive at its destination in a partly frozen condition.

The cold storage of butter is essential even when it is kept for only short periods, and the seasonal variation in price is sufficient to warrant its storage from summer to winter. The keeping qualities of butter depend upon many factors,* and the most efficient cold storage cannot compensate for previous deficiencies. In refrigerated butter there is a gradual diminution in the total number of living bacteria, with possibly a multiplication of a few particular kinds. There is a slow increase in acidity. In frozen butter the bacterial content and the chemical composition remain practically unchanged.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.—These foods are for the most part adapted for preservation for short periods at ordinary temperatures, and cold storage at a temperature slightly above zero is very effective in diminishing

* See chapter on the microbiology of butter.

the rate of change in them. The humidity of the storage chamber should be kept constant at about 60 per cent saturation in order to diminish evaporation as far as possible without favoring the development of molds. These foods generally remain alive during storage and the changes due to intrinsic enzymes are often important. Some fruits need to undergo further ripening in storage before they are ready for consumption and this change may be accelerated or delayed by changing the temperature of the storage chamber. The development of bacteria and molds with consequent rotting is best delayed by maintaining dry clean fruits and vegetables in an atmosphere of very constant humidity and very constant temperature slightly above the freezing-point.

Legal Control of the Cold-storage Industry.

At present there is a rather widespread prejudice against cold-storage food products, and in some respects this is not without justification. Cold storage preserves so well the external appearance of fresh foods that deception in the sale of them to the consumer is too frequently practised. This is extremely unfortunate for all parties concerned in such transactions. The proper branding of all cold-storage foods, clearly indicating their character and the length of time held in storage, would ultimately benefit the producer, the consumer and also the cold-storage industry. Where cold storage is efficient such a practice would proclaim its efficiency. Where it is inefficient the cold-storage industry can ill afford to allow the consumer to be deceived concerning the food he is purchasing. Laws compelling the proper labeling of such foods and prohibiting their sale except when branded as such would quickly remove unjust prejudice against cold storage, and would place this industry upon a secure foundation, greatly increasing the possibilities of its service to the food producers and consumers, and at the same time promoting the legitimate interests of the cold-storage industry.

CHAPTER IV.*

THE PRESERVATION OF FOOD BY CHEMICALS.

The addition of preservative substances to foods is a very ancient practice, and as no extensive equipment is required it is one of the cheapest ways of preserving food, especially on a small scale. The resulting alteration of the food in appearance and composition is greater than when it is preserved by cold storage, for the preservative substance added becomes a more or less permanent constituent of the food, but the changes are not necessarily undesirable. The addition of chemical preservatives is often practised in conjunction with desiccation or cold, or sometimes even in canned or bottled foods sterilized by heat. All the substances employed as preservatives owe whatever efficiency they may possess to their ability to restrict the activity of microörganisms, that is, their antiseptic properties.

The Effects of Preservatives upon Foods in General.

In only a few instances are chemical preservatives added to foods to be sold as fresh foods, and these practices are generally regarded with disfavor. Their most important use is in the prepared foods, the preservative being incorporated with the food during the process of preparation for storage.

The Process of Curing.—The procedures employed necessarily vary with different foods. Physical alterations in the food, such as changes in form, texture and water content are usually involved, as well as the solution of the preservative in the juices of the food. Chemical changes due to the intrinsic enzymes of the food, to the various accessory procedures such as drying, cooking or soaking in pickling solution may produce marked alteration. In some cases the preservative reacts chemically with some constituent of the food. During the curing process microbic activity may be more or less prominent at various times, playing its part in the chemical changes. Bacteria, yeasts and

*Prepared by W. J. Mac Neal.

molds are likely to be introduced into the food by the various manipulations and some of these may find conditions favorable for their proliferation. In some instances the activity of certain kinds of microbes appears to be essential to the proper curing and subsequent adequate preservation of the food, the preservative, the constituents of the food and the microörganisms mutually reacting to bring about the desired result. It is worth noting that the added chemical preservative is never sufficiently potent to destroy with certainty pathogenic microbes which may be present in the food.

THE PERIOD OF STORAGE.—Unless the food has been sterilized and stored in sealed containers, slow changes in water content, in consistency and in physical appearance usually take place during storage. The added preservative may continue to react with the food substance and its decomposition products. During this period there is relatively little intimate manipulation of the food and therefore little opportunity for the penetration of new microbes. Some of those already present may continue their activities at a diminished rate, producing slow chemical changes often of a desirable nature rather than otherwise. Accessory conditions, such as desiccation, cold storage, or sterilization and sealing, may greatly retard or check altogether microbic activity.

THE AFTER-STORAGE CHANGES.—The immediate preparation of preserved food for consumption is frequently important. The preservative may be largely removed mechanically, or extracted with water. During cooking peculiar chemical reactions may occur, and cooking is also important in the destruction of microörganisms remaining alive in the food up to that time.

THE CHEMICAL PRESERVATION OF CERTAIN FOODS.

MEATS AND FISH.—The preservation of meat and of fish by salting depends upon the increase of osmotic tension in the food, a physical change sufficient to prevent or greatly delay the growth of microörganisms. Sodium chloride (NaCl) probably owes its preservative value solely to this physical effect. In practice its action is often supplemented by the addition of a small amount of saltpeter (KNO_3), and sometimes also cane sugar ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$). The fluids of the flesh are in part removed by this treatment, carrying away a part of the soluble constituents. The fluids which remain contain the added preservative substance in solution,

and the whole mass of food substance is permeated by them. Potassium nitrate (saltpeter) reacts with the flesh, being reduced in part to nitrite. This enters into a combination with the coloring matter of meat, which upon cooking produces the characteristic red color of saltpeter in cured meat.

The various manipulations during the process of pickling or dry curing serve to introduce numerous microörganisms. Many of these may flourish in the pickling fluids, but in a sufficient concentration of salt and at a sufficiently low temperature, decomposition ordinarily does not progress so as to become objectionable, and proteolytic decomposition (putrefaction) is effectually prevented. This protection of the protein depends to some extent upon the acidity of the medium, which in turn is due largely to the bacterial decomposition of the muscle sugar. The powerful putrefactive bacteria (*B. œdematis* group, *B. putrificus*) flourish only in an alkaline medium. On the other hand too high a degree of acidity becomes in itself objectionable on account of the sour or rancid taste, and it is therefore important that the acid-producing bacteria should be held in check somewhat. In practice, saltpeter has proved of value for this particular purpose, and its action apparently depends upon the antiseptic effect of minute quantities of nitric acid (HNO_3) and nitrous acid (HNO_2) set free from the salt by the excess of organic acids produced by the bacteria. The curing of meats by pickling solutions is often supplemented by desiccation and impregnation with the antiseptic substances of wood smoke.

The dry-salting of codfish is an example of preservation by increasing the osmotic tension. The fish is cleaned and beheaded, split longitudinally, and the vertebral column removed. It is then carefully washed, and all visible blood is removed. The pieces are next covered with dry salt and packed in open casks. The salt rapidly extracts water from the flesh and a strong brine results. After a few days the casks are emptied out, and the pieces of fish, now smaller because of the loss of water, are again thoroughly washed and again packed in dry salt so that the adjacent pieces of fish are completely separated by an intervening layer of solid salt. The contents of the cask is subjected to high pressure to remove air, and the cask is finally closed.

The curing of hams is an example of preservation by increased osmotic tension combined with the addition of chemical preservatives. After slaughter and chilling the hams are injected with a solution containing 25 per cent common salt, 15 per cent granulated sugar, and 12 per cent saltpeter, and are then stored at a low temperature, preferably between 0° and +4°, in a brine containing about 20 per cent common salt, 5 per cent sugar, and 1 per cent saltpeter. The brine is renewed once or twice at intervals of a week or ten days. After about a month the hams are washed in warm water, dried

and hung in wood smoke for several days. They are then stored in a cool place. The proportions of the various constituents of the pickling solutions are subject to rather wide variation, and in general it may be said that the higher the temperature of the storage room, the more concentrated must be the pickling solutions to insure satisfactory preservation.

BUTTER.—Butter is usually salted with sodium chloride to impart the desired taste, and this salt also acts to some extent as a preservative by increasing the osmotic tension of the moisture remaining in the butter. Antiseptics such as boric acid, saltpeter, salicylic acid and formaldehyde have been employed in the preservation of butter, the first-mentioned appearing to be the most satisfactory. One half of 1 per cent of boric acid incorporated with high-grade butter previous to storage greatly delays rancid change. Fresh milk and cream are also sometimes treated with antiseptics such as formaldehyde, but the use of any chemical preservative whatever in these dairy products is unnecessary and generally disapproved.

PREPARED VEGETABLE AND FRUIT FOODS.—These foods are sometimes preserved by vinegar, sugar or alcohol, the presence of which is of course very evident to the consumer. Other substances less readily detected, such as sulphurous acid and sulphites, boric acid, salicylic acid, benzoic acid and sodium benzoate, and formaldehyde, are also employed in foods which must be kept some time after exposure to the air. These substances are incorporated with the food before it is packed, and serve to prevent the activity of microörganisms which gain access to it.

THE NUTRITIVE VALUE OF PRESERVED FOODS.

The nutritive value of a food depends upon the amount of utilizable food principles it contains. The food-principle content can be readily measured by chemical analysis, and in general there is no important difference between a preserved food and the corresponding fresh food in this respect. The utilization of the food principles, however, depends upon a number of factors and may be greatly influenced by individual peculiarities of the consumer. One important factor in the utilization of a food, and probably the most important factor in determining its market value, is palatability. In general, preserved foods are pleasant to the taste when eaten at intervals, but upon prolonged daily ingestion, the appetite for them fails and they may even become distasteful. It would therefore appear to be erroneous to regard preserved foods as in

every respect as valuable from the standpoint of nutrition as the corresponding fresh foods. The difference is not dependent upon a change in the food-principle content, but must be sought rather in slightly altered composition of the food and the specific effects of newly formed substances, and especially in the possible effects of the continued ingestion of the contained chemical preservatives upon the consumer.

The Effects of Food Preservatives.

The essential characters of a food preservative include antiseptic action to prevent decomposition of the food, and absence of evident poisonous or deleterious influence upon the consumer. It follows therefore that the effects of food preservatives upon the consumer, if they exist at all, are at any rate not easily recognized, and on account of the economic importance of the questions here involved this field of scientific research has been energetically cultivated by investigators with different viewpoints, and the results of investigation have been discussed with some heat. The modern pure food laws have required more specific knowledge upon these points for their proper administration, and have stimulated extensive investigations, but it is still too early to regard the facts as finally and definitely ascertained.

Substances Which Preserve by Their Physical Action.—The preservative effects of sodium chloride seem to depend entirely upon the high osmotic tension of strong salt solutions, and the same may be said of cane sugar. When diluted so as to be eaten with relish, these substances are themselves properly classed as foods, without deleterious effects upon ordinary individuals.

Substances Which Preserve by Their Chemical Action.—These preservatives inhibit the activity of microörganisms in a different way, not by withdrawing water from the microbic cell, but by entering into chemical combination with the living substance in such a way as to hinder its activity, or by entering into chemical reactions with the food to produce new substances capable of attacking the microbic protoplasm in this way. The ideal chemical food preservative would be one which, without altering the food substance, would exhibit this poisonous property toward living protoplasm until the food was ready for consumption, and then would suddenly and permanently lose this property. None of the ordinary food preservatives approaches this ideal very closely.

INORGANIC FOOD PRESERVATIVES.—Boric acid and borax are weak antiseptics, practically a saturated solution of boric acid being necessary to inhibit ordinary bacterial growth. When employed as a dry powder on the surface of meats, boric acid prevents the growth of mold, and most of it is removed from the food before consumption. When incorporated with butter it is eaten, and 0.5 to 1.0 g. may be taken daily in this way alone. The effect of such amounts of boric acid upon the consumer is still a disputed question. Wiley,* after a recent extensive investigation, concluded that small doses of either boric acid or borax continuously administered for a long period create disturbances of health.

Nitric acid and nitrous acid and their salts are food preservatives of some theoretical interest because it is well known that some bacteria readily decompose fairly strong solutions of nitrates, and also oxidize or reduce nitrites. Apparently, however, this is true only in neutral or alkaline solutions, and in the presence of free acid the activity of these microbes is quickly inhibited. The preservative effect of nitrates and nitrites is best ascribed to the liberation of minute quantities of free nitric and nitrous acids from these salts, and these substances are without value as preservatives in foods which are alkaline in reaction. The effects of the ingestion of nitrate or foods preserved with nitrate upon the consumer has been investigated by Wiley, who concluded that the deleterious effects are slight and less clearly detected than in the case of the other preservatives. Minute but variable amounts of nitrites occur in foods preserved with nitrates, but whether these amounts are sufficient to produce the specific nitrite effect upon the blood circulation of the consumer has not yet been definitely ascertained.

Sulphurous acid and the sulphites are rather extensively used in chopped meat (Hamburg steak) and in cider and wines. The addition of sulphite to chopped meat serves a three-fold purpose, retarding bacterial decomposition, producing a red color on the exposed surface, and removing odors of decomposition. It thus not only delays decomposition, but also to a certain extent conceals the decomposition which has already occurred. The ingestion of moderate quantities of sulphites in food has at times been followed by acute gastric derangement in man, and prolonged feeding of meat containing sulphites has been followed by inflammatory changes in the kidneys of experimental animals.

Fluorides have been used to a slight extent in beverages, but acute

* U. S. Dept. Agr., Bureau of Chemistry, Bull. No. 84, Part I.

gastric derangement and depression of the heart are caused by rather small quantities, and probably on this account the salts of hydrofluoric acid have not come into very general use as food preservatives.

ORGANIC FOOD PRESERVATIVES.—Formic acid ($H \cdot COOH$) and acetic acid ($CH_3 \cdot COOH$) are produced by microbic activity and their preservative action appears to depend more upon the degree of acidity than upon the character of the acid radical. Both these acids appear to be utilized as food in the body of the consumer.

Benzoic acid and benzoates are rather extensively employed in prepared vegetable food products, such as jams and catsups. The antiseptic effect seems to be due wholly to free benzoic acid, even where it is added in the form of the salt, but the action is not due merely to the acidity (i. e. the hydrogen ion). Benzoic acid is not utilized as a food in the body, but is excreted by the kidneys in the form of hippuric acid. It has been said to produce irritant effects upon the stomach and the kidneys, and to arrest the action of digestive enzymes in dilute solutions, but the Referee Board* of the United States Department of Agriculture, after extensive investigations, concluded that small doses of sodium benzoate mixed with food are not injurious to health, and do not impair the quality or nutritive value of the food.

Salicylic acid and the salicylates have been used for much the same purposes as benzoic acid, and there does not appear to be much difference between the two acids, either in their efficiency as preservatives or in their possible deleterious effects upon the consumer. Salicylic acid is more expensive. After extensive investigation Wiley† has concluded that the addition of salicylic acid and salicylates to foods is reprehensible in every respect, this conclusion corresponding to the results of similar work by the same investigator‡ upon benzoic acid.

Formaldehyde is very efficient as an antiseptic, delaying microbial decomposition when added to foods in very small quantity. Its use for this purpose is generally condemned, partly because of its hardening or "fixing" effect upon the protein constituents of the food, tending to make them more indigestible. Its use in milk and milk products, though still practised to some extent, has been prohibited by law in some states.

Alcohol ($CH_3 \cdot CH_2OH$), in sufficient concentration, is an excellent

* U. S. Dept. Agr. Report No. 88, May, 1909.
† U. S. Dept. Agr., Bureau of Chemistry, Bull. No. 84, Part II, 1906.
‡ U. S. Dept. Agr., Bureau of Chemistry, Bull. No. 84, Part IV, 1908.

preservative, but its presence in foods is readily detected, and it gives rise to characteristic effects upon the consumer. Furthermore, such foods are subject to special taxation as alcoholic products. Its use as a food preservative is therefore limited.

Wood smoke has been employed for centuries in the curing of meats. Its antiseptic properties probably depend for the most part upon creosote and pyroligneous acid, constituents of wood smoke which are antiseptic and also undoubtedly poisonous in sufficient doses. Smoking is a time-honored custom, however, and the amounts of these substances actually consumed with the smoked meat is doubtless exceedingly minute.

Substances Added to Foods to Improve the Apparent Quality. —Several chemical substances are employed in various foods to improve the appearance, or to simulate the taste of a higher-grade product. In some cases the presence of these agents is known to the consumer, and desired by him; in other instances they are employed to deceive the purchaser. Butter coloring is quite generally used to produce the color of June butter the year around; nitrates bring about a pleasing red color in cooked pickled meats; copper sulphate is used to give a more brilliant green color to prepared vegetable foods; sulphites restore the red color of freshly cut meat to meat far from fresh; saccharine devoid of food value gives a taste resembling sugar to a variety of preparations at a great saving in cost to the manufacturer; carbonates of the alkalies or alkaline earths added to milk, neutralize the acids resulting from bacterial decomposition and so keep the milk sweet; inorganic acids added to weak vinegar increase its acidity. Some of these practices are so universal and so well known that they are no longer criticized, others, such as the use of chalk in milk, are generally disapproved.

Legal Control of the Preservation of Foods by Chemicals.

The desirability of legal regulation of the use of chemical food preservatives is now generally recognized, but there is still considerable diversity of opinion concerning what this regulation should be. Few, indeed maintain that a substance exerting antiseptic action upon microörganisms outside the body is wholly without influence, after ingestion, upon the enzymes and bacteria of the normal digestive tract, even if we disregard the possible effects of the substance after absorption. It seems necessary to grant the existence of some effect, even though it be so slight

as to have escaped detection. Over against the possible injury to the consumer must be placed the economic saving through the use of the preservative, often involving a considerable amount of money. In the absence of accurate and trustworthy knowledge concerning the actual influence of preservatives in the human body it would seem wise to prohibit all deception in regard to their presence. The principle advocated by Pasteur (1891) would still seem to be best, that is, to allow the use of preservatives, which are not known to be dangerous, upon the condition that their presence and the exact amounts be definitely and clearly stated on an appropriate label for the benefit of the purchaser and the ultimate consumer. Such regulation would not only protect the consumer against deception and fraud but would go far toward removing unjust prejudice against preservatives, for even now there is little or no objection to those preservative substances whose presence can be detected and the amount roughly measured by the senses, such as salt, sugar, spices, vinegar and wood smoke.

CHAPTER V.*

MICROBIAL FOOD POISONING.

General Considerations.

Illness following the ingestion of food and more or less definitely ascribable to the food has been long recognized. The Mosaic regulations in regard to foods forbidden to the Jews are evidently designed in part to avoid the occurrence of food poisoning. In recent times recognized instances of food poisoning have been sufficiently frequent to make the subject one of considerable practical importance, but there are undoubtedly many instances of actual food poisoning in which the causal relation of the food remains unrecognized or even unsuspected.

Food poisoning is usually suspected at once upon the occurrence of sudden acute illness in a number of people at the same time, after they have partaken in common of some particular food or foods. The causal relation is especially evident when, as sometimes happens, a large number of people are affected in the same way immediately after eating together at a banquet, not having been associated with each other either before or after the meal. When a smaller number of individuals is involved, the connection with food may be more obscure. For this reason most of the well authenticated instances of food poisoning are instances in which many persons have been affected at the same time. Acute food poisonings involving only a few persons probably occur very frequently in the home, but they receive little public notice unless fatal, and are often dismissed as mere "errors in diet," or as "indigestion." A careful study of these cases is likely to be made only where there is suspicion of criminal poisoning, or some other practical end to be served by the investigation. Chronic forms of food poisoning are for obvious reasons very difficult to recognize with certainty, and some of the forms of disease now regarded as due to chronic food poisoning may eventually prove to be due to other causes. On the other hand chronic food poisoning may really be more important than is recognized at present. The subject is still in a very doubtful state.

* Prepared by W. J. Mac Neal.

To establish by laboratory investigation the poisonous character of foods requires toxicological training and experienced judgment, a discussion of which would lead beyond the scope of the present chapter. For a general review of this field of work and references to further information the articles cited at the end of this chapter should be consulted.

Several different classes of food poisonings may be recognized according to the source of the poisonous substance.

The substance of plants or animals may be naturally poisonous to man as a result of the physiological activity of their own living substance. Poison of this kind may be constantly present throughout the tissues, or it may be confined to certain parts, or it may occur only at particular times or seasons. Some instances of poisoning with fish and with mushrooms belong to this class, and possibly also some of the instances of poisoning with potatoes of high solanin content.

Plants and animals may feed upon substances not poisonous to themselves, and these substances may remain a constituent part of their bodies to poison man when consumed by him. Some poisonings with freshly killed game are considered to be of this nature.

Any food may contain foreign poison added to it by design or by accident, such for example as the salts of the various poisonous metals. The amount of tin or lead passing into solution in canned or tinned foods may conceivably be sufficient to cause poisoning, but there is no reliable evidence that it has ever occurred.

Animals may be infected with pathogenic bacteria or with other parasites capable of infecting man, and the use of food products from such animals may cause disease. Tuberculosis, trichinosis, and tapeworm may be acquired in this way.

Any food may serve as the passive carrier of infectious agents, such as *B. typhosus*, and some foods may even favor the multiplication of pathogenic bacteria gaining access to them.

A food may undergo chemical changes due to microörganisms incapable of infecting man, resulting in the production of poisonous substances in the food. Undoubtedly the great majority of instances of food poisonings belong in this class. The bacteria causing these changes have been designated as pathogenic saprophytes.

The last three classes comprise the microbial food poisonings, and these are the kinds of food poisoning with which we are at present more particularly concerned.

Infections of Food-producing Animals Transmissible to Man.

Animals dead of infectious diseases or slaughtered in the last stages of disease are not ordinarily used for food, nor is the milk of such animals ordinarily considered wholesome. This custom is certainly an ancient one, and is doubtless founded upon observation of unfavorable results following the consumption of such food. Exact knowledge of the nature of the diseases transmitted in this way is a more modern development, and this more exact knowledge is now being applied to some extent through food-inspection regulations to prevent the transmission of such diseases.

Tuberculosis of cattle has been shown by Smith to be due to a germ somewhat different from that causing the ordinary human tuberculosis, and this discovery has called into question the necessity of avoiding the use of food products from tuberculous animals. After a considerable amount of controversy it may now be regarded as definitely established that the bovine type of tubercle bacterium is capable of infecting man, and that a very considerable proportion of cases of tuberculosis in children are due to this type of organism, the infection probably arising through the use of milk from tuberculous animals. Anthrax, glanders, actinomycosis, and acute enteritis of animals are also transmissible to man. Food products from animals afflicted with these diseases should not be used until they have been passed upon by competent authority. Further information concerning them will be found in the sections dealing with these particular diseases.

In this connection it may be mentioned that some of the animal parasites, especially trichinæ and various sorts of tapeworms, gain access to the human body with the food. Thorough cooking usually serves to kill these parasites, as well as the pathogenic bacteria, but ordinary cooking should not be too implicitly relied upon to accomplish this result.

Human Infections Transmitted in Food.

Food may serve as the passive carrier of the germs of any human infectious disease capable of indirect transmission upon dead material. In some foods, especially milk, these infectious agents may actually multiply. Typhoid fever, diphtheria, and scarlet fever appear to be rather frequently disseminated through the agency of food, and paratyphoid fever seems to be commonly transmitted in this way. Especial precautions are advisable to prevent persons afflicted with dangerously communicable diseases and those who are chronic germ-carriers from

from engaging or continuing in occupations concerned with the immediate preparation of food for consumption, particularly such occupations as market-dairying, cooking, and serving food. Numerous serious epidemics have been traced to such sources in recent years.

Food Poisoning Due to the Growth of Saprophytic Bacteria in the Food.

Most food poisonings are due to food derived from perfectly healthy and wholesome animals or plants, which has subsequently undergone some bacterial decomposition giving rise to poisonous products. Our knowledge of the specific causes of the poisonous changes is, however, very incomplete, and on account of the difficult nature of investigation in this field, some of the conclusions reached by careful men are still open to question. The bacteria which have been most frequently identified with various epidemics of food poisoning are the following: *B. enteritidis* in meat poisoning; *B. botulinus* in meat and in sausage poisoning; *B. paratyphosus* in poisoning with meat, chicken, shell-fish, and vegetables; *B. coli* in cheese poisoning and in milk poisoning; *B. vulgaris* in meat and in vegetable food poisonings. Doubtless other microörganisms, as yet unrecognized, play an important part in many food poisonings, and there is reason to believe that some of these important unknown forms are anaerobic bacteria.

Poisonous Meat and Sausage.—The flesh of a healthy animal is ordinarily free from bacteria at the time of slaughter, and bacterial changes must begin at the surfaces of the pieces of meat and gradually extend inward. In diseased animals, bacteria more frequently circulate in the blood, and the flesh may be contaminated throughout when the animal dies of the disease or when it is slaughtered, not only with the specific germs of the disease but also with bacteria derived from the intestinal tract of the animal. It is a matter of observation that the flesh of diseased animals is more liable to undergo early putrefactive and poisonous changes than that derived from healthy animals. Hashed meat is, of course, much more prone to bacterial decomposition, because in it the bacteria have become well distributed throughout the mass, and ideal conditions are provided for the development of anaerobic as well as aerobic bacteria. Minced chicken and chicken pie appear to be very frequent sources of acute poisoning in the United States, and epidemics of sausage poisoning have repeatedly occurred, especially in Germany. The bacteria found to be concerned in these instances have been *B. enteritidis*, *B. paratyphosus*,

B. coli, and *B. botulinus*. These organisms, or at least some varieties of them, produce powerful poisons which are not destroyed by boiling, and therefore may remain in the food after thorough cooking. Moreover, meat rendered poisonous by these bacteria may show no evidence of putrefaction. *B.* (*Protens*) *vulgaris* has also been found in some samples of poisonous meat, and this finding is usually associated with definite evidence of putrefaction.

The symptoms of meat poisoning are usually those of acute gastro-enteritis, vomiting, cramps, and diarrhœa. The patients often recover very quickly, but occasionally the illness is rapidly fatal, or it may merge into a subacute form resembling or identical with paratyphoid fever. In those instances of poisoning due to the presence of *B. botulinus* the symptoms are of a different kind, consisting almost solely of nervous disturbances, secretory and motor paralyses, without fever, resembling in many respects poisoning with atropin. In this form of meat poisoning the death rate is relatively high, occurring in about 40 per cent of the cases.

FISH POISONING is of two general kinds, that due to poisons natural to the fish, and that due to poisons formed by bacterial activity in the flesh of the fish. Blanchard has applied the Spanish name "Siguatera" to the first kind and the term "Botulism" to the second. In the Japanese fish of the genus Tetrodon the roe is poisonous, giving rise to severe gastro-intestinal irritation and convulsions. The remainder of the fish is not poisonous. In some other fishes the sexual glands are poisonous during the spawning season; others are provided with special poison glands connected with protective spines or barbs. These are examples of poisons natural to fish. Bacterial poisons are likely to be formed in any kind of fish, given the suitable conditions, and thus give rise to the kind of fish poisoning designated as botulism. Cases of this kind have resulted from eating (spoiled) canned salmon and sardines. Poisoning may also result from eating diseased fish, the effects being due to poisons elaborated by the infecting bacteria in the body of the fish before consumption. This appears to be a rather common form of fish poisoning in Russia. *B. paratyphosus* has been isolated from some poisonous fish, and certain toxicogenic anaerobes have been found in others.

POISONING WITH SHELL-FISH is so well recognized that this form of food is not customarily used at all during the warmer part of the year, May to August inclusive, the months without an *r* in their names. *Shell-fish* may serve as carriers of human infectious diseases, such as typhoid

fever; they may be poisonous on account of actual disease or through serious contamination due to living in dirty water; or they may be poisonous because of decomposition which has taken place after removal from the water. According to the symptoms produced, there appear to be at least three distinct varieties of shell-fish poisoning, one a purely gastro-intestinal disorder, the second an involvement of the nervous system with itching skin eruption and convulsions, and a third type resembling very closely alcoholic intoxication. The exact nature of the microbic agents concerned in these different types of poisoning is unknown. It is pretty well established, however, that the poisonous character of shell-fish is due either to their living for some time in dirty water, or to their too long preservation, especially at high temperature, after removal from the water.

MILK, ICE-CREAM AND CHEESE sometimes give rise to poisoning, and although these instances are small in number in comparison with the enormous amount of milk and milk products consumed, yet in the aggregate they are numerous. That many human infections may be transmitted by milk has already been pointed out. In the summer, milk is undoubtedly a great factor in the infant morbidity and mortality, and this poisonous action is largely due to bacterial changes in the milk. Extraordinary precautions are therefore essential in the production and care of milk to be used as food for children, particularly during the warmer season of the year. Severe poisoning of adults with milk, ice-cream, or cheese, is relatively less frequent. Cases which have been studied have been traced to the development of *B. coli* or *B. paratyphosus* in these foods. There is some evidence that other bacteria, probably strict anaerobes, are also sometimes concerned. Strict cleanliness, proper refrigeration, and pasteurization of milk of uncertain character, may usually be relied upon to prevent milk poisoning. Ice-cream should be made only from wholesome materials and with due regard to cleanliness in making it. The causes of serious cheese poisoning are not definitely known, but such poisoning may be avoided, to a large extent at least, by using only standard varieties of cheese of the proper odor and flavor.

VEGETABLE FOOD POISONING, in an acute form, has followed the use of sprouting and partly decomposed potatoes, and also various canned vegetables, particularly those of high protein content, such as beans. The large majority and possibly all of these cases are due to decomposition changes in the foods, *B. botulinus* and *B. proteus* appearing to be the microbes most frequently concerned.

There are also certain definite, more or less chronic diseases which have been attributed to the use of certain grains as foods. Ergotism, characterized by cachexia, gangrene, and convulsions, is caused by eating the fungus, *Claviceps purpurea*, which grows as a parasite upon rye. The grain of this parasite has a considerable commercial (medicinal) value sufficient to pay for its separation from rye where it occurs, so there is little economic excuse for food poisoning from this cause. Beriberi or kakke is a chronic nervous disorder which occurs especially among the Japanese, at one time ascribed to the use of fish and later to the use of rice as food. The rice hypothesis has considerable observational and experimental evidence to support it, but can hardly be regarded as definitely established. Pellagera is a cachexia, characterized by a definite sort of skin eruption, which has been ascribed to the use of maize (Indian corn) as food. This disease is discussed in a separate section.

The Chemical Nature of Food Poisons.

The poisonous substances in foods are for the most part of the same nature as the poisons of the pathogenic bacteria. The simplest in structure of these poisons belong to the alkaloidal substances, substituted ammonia and ammonium compounds, called *ptomaïns* (p. 115). Several of these have been prepared in a pure state, for example, mytilotoxin ($C_6H_{15}NO_2$) from poisonous shell-fish, and neurin ($C_2H_3 \cdot N(CH_3)_3 \cdot OH$) from putrefied horse, beef, and human flesh. Although ptomaïns undoubtedly occur at times in poisonous foods, they are not now considered of so much importance in food poisoning as formerly, for in the majority of samples of poisonous food the search for ptomaïns has been in vain. The poisonous effects are believed rather to be due for the most part to much more complex bodies resulting from the earliest analytic changes in the food protein, or else to bodies built up by actual synthesis by the bacteria. Such substances are classed with the toxic proteins and the true toxins. Their chemical composition and structure are not definitely known.

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CHAPTER VI.*

THE MICROBIOLOGY OF ALCOHOL PRODUCTS.

WINE.

Wine may be defined shortly as the product of the alcoholic fermentation of grapes and the usual cellar treatment.

The classifications of wines are numerous and the varieties innumerable. They may be separated, however, into a few main groups, depending on chemical composition and methods of manufacture. *Dry* wines are those in which practically all the sugar has been removed by fermentation; *sweet* wines, those in which enough sugar remains or is added to be noticeable to the taste; *fortified* wines, those that have received an addition of distilled *wine spirits;* and *sparkling* wines, those highly charged with carbon dioxide, produced by supplementary fermentation in the bottle. Each of these groups includes *white* wines made from the expressed juice of the grape, and *red* wines made from both the juice and skins of red grapes.

GRAPE JUICE AND WINE AS CULTURE MEDIA.

Grape juice, known technically as *must*, is a sugary, acid, organic solution very favorable to the growth of yeasts and of many other fungi, but unfavorable to most bacteria. Wine is of a similar composition but contains alcohol instead of sugar and is therefore less favorable to the growth of most microörganisms. Both liquids are of highly complex composition. Their character as culture media is indicated by the following table:

Composition of Must and Dry Wine.

	Must.	Wine.
Specific gravity	1.0600 to 1.1090	.9850 to 1.0000
Fermentable Sugar	12.0 to 25.0 per cent	0 to .5 per cent
Alcohol	none	8.0 to 15.0 per cent
Acidity (as Tartaric)	.5 to 1.25 per cent	.25 to 1.0 per cent
Nitrogenous matters (soluble)	.2 to .4 per cent	variable but small
Tannin	Traces	traces to .30 per cent
Dry extract	.....	.15 to .40 per cent
Ash	.20 to .70 per cent	.13 to .50 per cent

* Prepared by F. T. Bioletti.

Fortified wines (sweet wines are usually fortified) contain enough alcohol to make them practically antiseptic to all microörganisms.

The Microörganisms Found on Grapes.

On the surfaces of grapes, as they are brought to the cellar, may be found all the bacteria and fungi usually carried by the air and by insects. Many of these are incapable of growing in grape must, and are, therefore, without effect on the wine.

Molds.—The spores of the common saprophytic molds, *Penicillium*, *Dematium*, *Aspergillus*, *Mucor*, are always present in abundance, and they find in must excellent conditions for development. *Botrytis cinerea*, a facultative parasite of the leaves and fruit of the vine, is also nearly constantly present in larger or smaller quantities. All these molds are harmful to the grapes and the wine. Some of them, such as *Penicillium*, may give a disagreeable, moldy taste to the wine, sufficient to spoil its commercial value. Others, such as some *Mucors* and *Aspergilli* may injure the wine but slightly except by destroying the sugar and diminishing the alcohol. *Dematium pullulans* may produce a slimy condition in weak white musts and most of them may injure the brightness and flavor to some extent.

On sound ripe grapes these molds occur in comparatively small numbers and being in the spore or dormant condition they are unable to develop sufficiently to injure the wine under the conditions of proper wine making. On grapes which are injured by diseases, rain or insects, they may be present in sufficient quantities to spoil the grapes before they are gathered. On sound grapes which are gathered and handled carelessly, they may develop sufficiently before fermentation to injure or spoil the wine.

An exception to the generally harmful effect of these molds is *Botrytis cinerea* (*Sclerotinia fuckeliana*) which under certain circumstances may have a beneficial action. When the conditions of temperature and moisture are favorable, this mold will attack the skin of the grape, facilitating evaporation of water from the pulp. This results in a concentration of the juice. The mycelium then penetrates the pulp, consuming both sugar and acid, principally the latter. The net result is an increase in the percentage of sugar and a decrease in that of acid. This, where grapes ripen with difficulty, is an advantage, as no moldy flavor is produced. Two harmful effects, however, follow: the growth of mold results in the

destruction of a certain amount of material, and a consequent loss of quantity, which is, in certain circumstances, more than counterbalanced by an increase in quality (wines of the Rhine, Sauternes); again, an *oxydase* is produced which tends to destroy the color, brightness and flavor of the wine. This can be counteracted by the judicious use of sulphurous acid.

YEASTS.—The true yeasts occur much less abundantly on grapes than the molds. Until the grapes are ripe they are practically absent, as first shown by Pasteur. Later, they gradually increase in number and on very ripe grapes often become abundant. In all cases and at all seasons, however, their numbers are much inferior to those of the molds and pseudo-yeasts. The cause of this seems to be that in the vineyard the common molds find conditions favorable to their development at nearly all seasons of the year, but yeasts only during the vintage season.

Investigations of Hansen, Wortmann and others show that yeasts exist in the soil of the vineyard at all times, but in very varying amounts. For a month or two following the vintage, a particle of soil added to a nutritive solution contains so much yeast that it acts like a leaven. For the next few months, the amount of yeast present decreases until a little before the vintage, when the soil must be carefully examined to find any yeast at all. As soon as the grapes are ripe, however, any rupture of the skin of the fruit will offer a favorable nidus for the development and increase of any yeast cells which reach it. Where these first cells come from has not been determined, but as there are still a few yeast cells in the soil, they may be brought by the wind, or bees and wasps may carry them from other fruits or from their hives and nests.

The increase of the amount of yeast present on the ripe grapes is often very rapid and seems to have (according to Wortmann) a direct relation to the abundance of wasps. These insects passing from vine to vine, crawling over the bunches to feed on the juice of ruptured berries, soon inoculate all exposed juice and pulp. New yeast cultures are thus produced, and the resulting yeast cells quickly disseminated over the skins and other surfaces visited.

The more unsound or broken grapes present, and the more honey-dew or dust adhering to the skin, the larger the amount of yeast will be. The same is true, however, also of molds and other organisms.

In the older wine-making districts, much of the yeast present on the grapes will consist of the true wine yeast, *S. ellipsoideus*. The race or variety of this yeast will differ, however, in different districts. Usually

several varieties will be found in each district. The idea prevalent at one time, that each variety of grapes has its own variety of yeast seems to have been disproved, though there seems to be some basis for the idea that grapes differing very much in composition, varying in acidity and tannin contents, may vary also in the kind of yeast present. Several varieties of *S. ellipsoideus* may occur on the same grapes. In new grape-growing districts, where wine has never been made, *S. ellipsoideus* may be completely absent.

Besides the true wine yeast, other yeasts usually occur. The commonest forms are cylindrical cells grouped as *S. pasteurianus*. These forms are particularly abundant in the newer districts where they may take a notable part in the fermentation. Their presence in large numbers is always undesirable and results in inferior wine. Many other yeasts may occur occasionally and are all more or less harmful. Some have been noted as producing sliminess in the wine. Many of these yeasts produce little or no alcohol and will grow only in the presence of oxygen.

Pseudo-yeasts.—Yeast-like organisms producing no endospores always occur on grapes. Their annual life-cycle and distribution are similar to those of the true yeasts, but some of them are much more abundant than the latter. They live at the expense of the food materials of the must and when allowed to develop cause cloudiness and various defects in the wine.

The most important and abundant is the apiculate yeast, *S. apiculatus*. According to Lindner this is a true yeast, producing endospores. The cells of this organism are much smaller than those of *S. ellipsoideus* and very distinct in form. In pure culture these cells show various forms, ranging from ellipsoidal to pear-shaped (apiculate at one end) and lemon-shaped (apiculate at both ends). These forms represent simply stages of development. The apiculations are the first stage in the formation of daughter cells, the ellipsoidal cells, the newly separated daughter cells, which later, produce apiculations and new cells in turn.

Many varieties of this yeast occur as in the case of *S. ellipsoideus*. They are widely distributed in nature, occurring on most fruits, and are particularly abundant on acid fruits such as grapes. Apiculate yeast appears on the partially ripe grapes before the true wine yeast and even on ripe grapes is more abundant than the latter. The rate of multiplication of this yeast is very rapid under favoring conditions and much exceeds that of wine yeast. The first part of the fermentation, especially

at the beginning of the vintage and with acid grapes, is, therefore, often almost entirely the work of the apiculate yeast.

The amount of alcohol produced by this yeast is about 4 per cent, varying with the variety from 2 to 6 per cent. When the fermentation has produced this amount of alcohol the activity of the yeast slackens and finally stops, allowing the more resistant ellipsoideus to multiply and finish the destruction of the sugar. The growth of *S. apiculatus*, however, has a deterring effect on that of the true wine yeast so that where much of the former has been present during the first stagesof fermentation the latter often fails to eliminate all the sugar during the last stages.

Wines in which the apiculate yeast has had a large part in the fermentation are apt to retain some unfermented sugar and are very liable to the attacks of disease-producing organisms. Their taste and color are defective, often suggestive of cider, and they are difficult to overcome. This yeast attacks the fixed acids of the must, the amount of which is therefore diminished in the wine, while on the other hand the volatile acids are increased.

Many other yeast-like organisms may occur on grapes, but, under ordinary conditions, fail to develop sufficiently in competition with apiculatus to have any appreciable effect on the wine. Most of them are small round cells, classed usually as *Torulæ*. They destroy the sugar but produce little or no alcohol.

A group of similar forms, known collectively as *Mycoderma vini*, occurs constantly on the grapes but, all being strongly aerobic, they do not develop in the fermenting vat, but under favoring conditions may be harmful to the fermented wine.

Bacteria of many kinds occur on grapes as on all surfaces exposed to the air. Most of these are unable to develop in solutions as acid as grape juice or wine. Of the acid-resisting kinds, a number may cause serious defects and even completely destroy the wine. These, the "*disease-producing bacteria*" of wine, are mostly anaerobic and can develop only after the grapes are crushed and the oxygen of the must exhausted by other organisms. Practically all grape must contains some of these bacteria, which, unless the work of the wine maker is properly done, will seriously interfere with the work of the yeast, thus causing injury to the wine. The only bacteria which may injure the grapes before crushing are the aerobic, acetic bacteria, which may develop

on injured or carelessly handled grapes sufficiently to interfere with fermentation and seriously impair the quality of the wine.

The Microörganisms Found in Wine.

Wine microörganisms may be conveniently divided into two groups: those which grow only in the presence of notable supplies of free oxygen, and those which require or grow better in the absence of free oxygen.

Aerobic Organisms. *Mycodermæ.*—If a normal wine, especially one strong in alcohol, is left with its surface exposed to the air, it will usually, in a few days, be covered with a whitish film, thin and smooth at first but gradually becoming thicker and finally rough and plicate. This is what is known to wine-makers as "*wine flowers.*" This film consists of yeast-like cells, somewhat longer and more cylindrical than *S. ellipsoideus*, reproducing by budding and forming large aggregations.

Pure cultures show that there are many varieties of this organism differing in the color and texture of the film, in the cloudiness of the liquid and in the character of the deposit. They are called collectively *Mycoderma vini*, though one form which has been found to produce endospores has been called *S. anomalous.*

These organisms are strongly aerobic and can develop only on the surface in full contact with the air. They are a serious enemy to the wine, rendering it insipid and cloudy. They attack the extract, fixed acids, and alcohol, producing at first volatile acids and finally causing complete combustion of the organic matters to carbon dioxide and water, destroying the wine completely.

Acetic Bacteria.—The film formed on wines exposed to the air, especially on those of low alcoholic content, will often differ from that due to *Mycoderma vini.* It will be thinner, smoother and consist of bacteria. These are the vinegar bacteria described on page 448. They grow not only on the wine at the expense of the alcohol, but on crushed grapes and must at the expense of the sugar, producing acetic acid in both cases.

Acetic acid in small amounts is produced by the yeast and is a normal constituent of wine. Unless in excess its effect is not injurious. There may be present from .09 g. in .100 g. in light white wine to .14 g. in a heavy red wine without deterioration of quality. In sweet wines, even a somewhat larger amount may be present without causing injury.

Much larger amounts are injurious in two ways. When the acetic acid is perceptible to the taste, the wine is spoiled. When an abnormal amount of acetic acid is produced before or during fermentation it interferes with or stops the work of the yeast. In such cases, the wine "sticks," that is, fails to eliminate all its sugar and becomes especially liable to the attacks of other bacteria.

Wines high in alcohol are less liable to acetic fermentation than weaker wines. Sound wines containing over 14 per cent by volume of alcohol are almost immune, but such wines may be spoiled during fermentation by the growth of acetic bacteria on the exposed floating "cap" of pomace or on the crushed grapes, especially at high temperatures.

ANAEROBIC ORGANISMS (*Facultative and Obligate*).—Some of the worst, most frequent, and most difficult to treat diseases and defects of wine are due to organisms which develop only in the absence of oxygen. These organisms are all bacteria and appear to include a large number of forms, though, owing to difficulties of isolation and culture, the different forms have not been well studied or described.

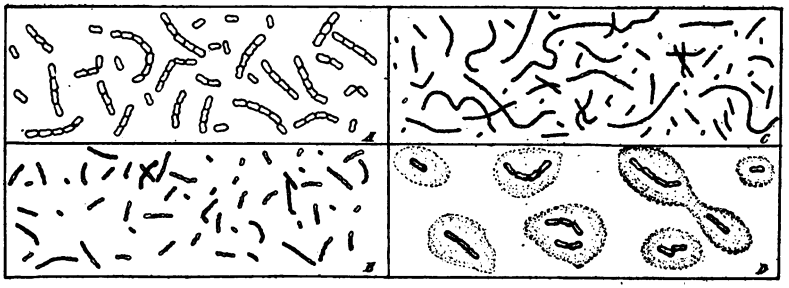


FIG. 86.—Bacteria of slimy wine. *A*, *B*, *C*, pure cultures of various forms; *D*, mucilaginous sheath of slime bacteria. (*After Kayser and Manceau.*)

Slime-forming Bacteria.—Musts and wines become slimy rarely through the action of *Dematium pullulans* (Wortmann) and wild yeast (Meisner) in the presence of oxygen but more frequently through the action of bacteria. In most cases only young wines after fermentation and when contained in closed casks or bottles exhibit this defect. A slimy wine has an oily appearance, pours without splashing and in extreme cases, becomes cloudy and will hang from a glass rod in strings.

In such wines, the microscope reveals large numbers of almost spherical or more or less elongated bacteria in long chains. Other ob-

servers have noticed a diplococcus and a sarcina. Kayser and Manceau have recently investigated the subject very thoroughly and described a number of forms which are mostly short rods of from 1μ to 2μ by $.7\mu$ to 1.2μ. One large form, 3μ to $4\mu \times 1.6\mu$ to 1.7μ, was also noted. They all form chains, usually of considerable length. They all produce an abundant slimy sheath and stain easily with carbol-fuchsin and other aniline dyes and are Gram-positive (Fig. 86).

These bacteria attack the sugar but neither the glycerin nor the alcohol and produce mannit, carbon dioxide, lactic and acetic acids and ethyl alcohol. The disease is usually not serious and disappears under the ordinary cellar treatment. Alcohol above thirteen per cent, free tartaric acid, tannin and sulphurous acid in small amounts prevent their growth.

Propionic and Lactic Bacteria.—The most serious and perhaps the commonest disease of wines is characterized by persistent cloudiness, disagreeable odors and flavors, increase of volatile acid and injury to or complete destruction of the color. Wines affected are characterized commonly as *mousey*, *lactic* or *turned* wines (Pousse and Tourne of the French).

The disease is due to bacteria. Enormous numbers are readily revealed by the microscope in badly affected wines. There seem to be several or many closely related forms, all short rod-shaped, isolated in the first stages of the disease, but later forming chains or filaments of various lengths. The most noticeable change caused in the composition of the wine is the decrease of fixed and increase of volatile acidity. The tartaric acid and tartrates are destroyed, and carbonic, acetic, lactic, propionic and other acids formed.

Light wines of low acidity are most subject to this disease which may be prevented by measures which increase the acidity and alcohol by rapid and complete defecation and attenuation of the wine with the proper use of sulphurous acid, and finally by timely filtration and pasteurization. Wines noticeably affected can be used only for distilling; those badly affected are valueless.

Mannitic Bacteria.—Very sweet grapes of low acidity in hot climates are subject during fermentation to a similar trouble characterized by increase of volatile acidity and a persistent cloudiness and a vapid sweet-sour taste. The disease is commonly confused with the preceding but is caused by bacteria of different forms. The form described by Gayon

is a very fine short rod which does not unite in filaments. It attacks the sugar, especially the levulose, producing volatile acids and mannit. The latter may reach over 2 per cent and the former 5 per cent, giving a sweet-sour wine which is completely spoiled.

The bacteria grow abundantly only at high temperatures approaching 40° and can be controlled by cool fermentation, increase of acidity and proper use of sulphurous acid.

Butyric Bacteria.—In the cooler climates, wines, especially old red wines in bottles, often become bitter. This trouble is due to comparatively large rod-shaped bacteria, first described by Pasteur. The cells remain united in angular filaments, short at first, but becoming longer and finally thicker with age by incrustations of coloring matter.

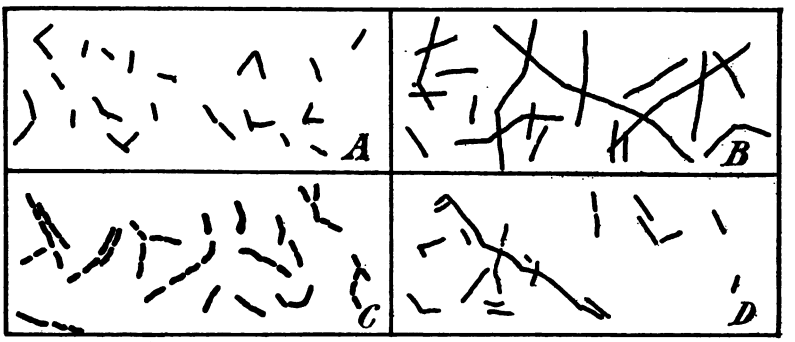


FIG. 87.—Bacteria of wine diseases. *A*, bacteria of "turned wine," young wine (*After Bioletti*); *D*, bacteria of "turned wine," old wine (*After Bioletti*); *C*, mannitic bacteria (*After Maze and Pacottet*); *D*, bacteria of "bitter wine" (*After Pacottet*).

The tannin, coloring matter, and glycerin of the wine are attacked, acetic and butyric acids being formed. In small amounts the bacteria do little or no harm, in larger amounts they may spoil the wine. Means which increase the alcohol, tannin and acidity diminish the liability to the disease. Prompt attenuation and clarification and in extreme cases pasteurization will cure wines not too badly affected.

All the above anaerobic bacteria of wine diseases probably exist in most wines. Which develop most, or whether any develop sufficiently to injure the wine depends on conditions, chiefly the composition of the must and the temperature at which the wine is fermented or stored. Most diseased wines show a mixed infection of several forms.

CONTROL OF THE MICROÖRGANISMS.

Given grapes of suitable composition, the quality of the wine depends on the work of microörganisms. The art of the wine maker consists almost entirely in the control of these microörganisms. His success in facilitating the work of the useful form (true wine yeast) and in preventing or hindering the work of injurious forms determines the quality of his product.

BEFORE FERMENTATION.—On the skins of sound ripe grapes as they hang in the vineyard the microörganisms are comparatively few and in an inactive condition. With the utilization of intelligent methods they cannot injure the wine. On broken or injured grapes, the number is greater and the forms more active. If many such grapes occur they should not be mixed with the sound grapes if the best wine is to be made.

Care should be taken to avoid unnecessary bruising of the fruit if it cannot be worked immediately. Molds, wild yeasts and acetic bacteria multiply rapidly on grapes wet with juice.

The sooner the grapes can be crushed and placed in the fermenting vat or pressed the easier it is to obtain a sound fermentation.

Cleanliness is essential. Grapes, which are gathered in moldy, vinegar-soured boxes, hauled in dirty wagons or cars, and passed through dirty crushers, conveyors and presses, may be so completely infected with injurious germs that it is impossible to obtain a good fermentation. The most injurious forms of dirt are must, grapes, or wine, which have been allowed to become moldy or vinegar-soured.

Dust or soil is less injurious and, if excessive, may often be removed by sprinkling, especially is this true if the grapes are too sweet and require dilution. Washing with antiseptics is not permissible. A weak solution of potassium metabisulphite might be used with benefit if it were not for the difficulty of regulating the amount of sulphurous acid entering the fermenting vessel.

If the grapes have to be kept for some time before crushing they should be kept as cool as possible to delay the growth of molds. Gathering in the cool of the morning is desirable and if grapes are gathered when warm they should be left in boxes to cool off during the night whenever possible. If the grapes are cool when they reach the fermenting vat they will neutralize a certain proportion of the heat of fermentation, accordingly the difficulty of avoiding injuriously high temperatures is diminished.

However carefully the grapes are handled, a certain amount of dust containing germs and other injurious matters will reach the vats and presses. In the manufacture of white wines, especially, it is desirable to get rid of these matters before fermentation. This is best accomplished by settling and decantation.

As the juice runs from the press it is pumped into a settling tank or cask. If it is cold, below 15°, and of full normal acidity, the impurities may settle in twenty to forty-eight hours. If the temperature is higher than 15° and the acidity low, molds and yeasts will develop or fermentation will start and prevent settling. A slight sulphuring with

the fumes of burning sulphur or with a solution of potassium metabisulphite is therefore usually necessary. The sulphuring should be as light as possible with acid musts as it tends to preserve the fixed acids. For the same reason it benefits musts of low acidity. In from twelve to twenty-four hours the must is purged of all its gross impurities including microörganisms, dust and solid particles derived from the skins and the stems and pulp of the grapes. It may be slightly cloudy or nearly clear. It can then be drawn off into clean casks and fermentation started with yeast.

This defecation is of great value, ridding the must of substances that would affect the flavor of the wine in the heat of fermentation and eliminating the excess of protein matters that would serve as food for injurious bacteria. Centrifugal machines have been devised to hasten the process of defecation, but their work is less perfect.

Sterilization by heat has been tried for the same purpose but with indifferent success. High heating caramelizes part of the sugar and oxydizes the must, thus injuring the flavor. Discontinuous heating at lower temperatures in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide is preferable but troublesome and expensive; all methods have the defect of extracting undesirable substances from the solid matters which are heated with the must.

Chemical sterilization is still less practicable. No substance could be used for this purpose except sulphur dioxide; this used in sufficient quantities would seriously injure the flavor of the wine. The effect would be totally different from that of the small quantities used in defecation.

All the methods discussed have for their object the diminution or elimination of microörganisms of all kinds. With the injurious forms the true yeast is also removed. The more perfect these methods, the more necessary it is to add wine yeast. Without this addition, in fact, all these precautions may result in harm, for the wine yeast, being present in much smaller numbers than many of the injurious forms, may be completely removed while enough of other forms are left to spoil the wine.

A "starter" of some kind is therefore necessary with defecated must and useful in all other cases.

A Starter.—One method of producing such a starter is to gather a suitable quantity of the cleanest and soundest ripe grapes in the vineyard, crush them carefully and allow them to undergo spontaneous fermentation. Perfectly ripe grapes should be selected and the fermentation allowed to proceed until at least 10 per cent of alcohol is produced. If imperfectly ripened grapes are used or the starter used too soon, the principal yeast present will be *S. apiculatus*. Toward the *end* of the fermentation, *S. ellipsoideus* pre-dominates. From 4 to 12 l. (1 to 3 gallons) of this starter should be used for each 500 l. (100 gallons) of grapes or must to be fermented. Too much "starter" should not be used in hot weather or with warm grapes; unless this precaution is obesrved, it may be impossible to control the temperature.

This starter is used only for the first vat or cask. Those following are started from the first fermentations, care being taken always to use the must only from a tank at the proper stage of fermentation and to avoid all tanks that show any defect.

An improvement on a natural starter of this kind is a pure culture of tested yeast.

Such yeasts are being used extensively in Germany, France and Italy, usually with excellent results. The methods of use would require too much space to describe here, but they are simple and such as could easily be devised by anyone with some knowledge of microbiological technic. They do not aim at obtaining an absolutely pure fermentation, which is unnecessary, but endeavor to have an overwhelming proportion of a thoroughly tested and suitable yeast which will rapidly and perfectly attenuate the wine before the few injurious microörganisms present have time to do any harm.

DURING FERMENTATION.—However carefully the injurious germs have been excluded and the good yeast increased, fermentation will not be successful unless conditions as favorable to the latter and unfavorable to the former as possible are maintained.

The temperature of the crushed grapes or expressed must is of importance. If it is below 15°, unless the weather is warm, the grapes should be warmed to 20° or 25°. Unless this is done, the molds and *S. apiculatus*, which require less heat than *S. ellipsoideus* will develop more quickly. This is especially true when starters are not used. In the warmer and earlier seasonal districts the grapes are practically never too cold. On the other hand, unless there is great carelessness, the grapes are never too warm for the commencement of fermentation. The warmer they are, however, the more artificial cooling will be necessary later, and the sooner it will have to be applied.

Thorough crushing is necessary in the case of white wine, to facilitate the expression of the juice. For red wine, the grapes are also thoroughly crushed and the skin, pulp and juice are fermented together. Imperfectly crushed grapes ferment unevenly and incompletely; the growth of mold, is much facilitated.

The must should be thoroughly saturated with air at the beginning of fermentation to insure the multiplication of the yeast. The aeration received in the processes of stemming, crushing and pressing is usually sufficient for this purpose. More aeration would be harmful by injuring the flavor and color of the wine by over-oxidation and promoting the growth of injurious aerobic organisms. An objection to the sterilization of must by heat is the expulsion of the air and the difficulty of replacing it in the proper amount.

The proper use of sulphurous acid in the regulation of fermentation is one of the most important and necessary but least understood parts of the wine-maker's art. Only by this proper use can wholesome wine of the highest quality be produced. Improper use will injure

or completely spoil the wine. Its beneficial effects are due primarily to its action on microörganisms, on enzymes and on the color of the wine.

In the small quantities properly used in wine-making, it is antiseptic in a degree varying with the amount. All microörganisms are susceptible to its action in varying degrees. Bacteria are particularly sensitive, molds and pseudo-yeasts less so, while wine yeast is the most resistant of the ordinary forms found in must and wine.

The result of the use of the proper amount of sulphurous acid in crushed grapes and must before fermentation is the almost complete suppression of bacterial action, the discouragement of molds and pseudo-yeasts and the promotion of the growth of wine yeast which is given a clear field unhindered by the deleterious excretions of competitors.

Its action as regards enzymes is hardly less important. It would be impossible to make the finest wines of Sauternes and the Rheingau without its use on account of the oxidase produced by the *Botrytis cinerea* which is abundant and necessary on the best grapes of these regions. In other regions where this mold and others occasionally occur its use is also necessary. In hot climates it is especially useful, not only because bacterial action is more intense in such regions but because of its action in preserving the natural fixed acids of the grape, which are, there, nearly always deficient. This preservation, according to Wortmann, is due to the suppression of acid-consuming bacteria, but experiments of Astruc tend to show that the prevention of the action of unknown acid-destroying enzymes is in part the cause.

Its action on the color of wines is also of importance. By the action of oxygen, the color of red wine is gradually made insoluble and precipitated, and the greenish or golden color of white wine is turned to brown. Both these actions are prevented or much diminished by the use of minute quantities of sulphurous acid.

The most commonly used source of sulphurous acid is the fumes of burning sulphur. Sulphur is burned in a cask and the must caused to take up the fumes by being pumped into the cask through the upper bung hole. It is almost impracticable to apply sulphurous acid from this source to crushed grapes for red wine.

The method is defective in many ways. It is impossible to tell within very wide limits how much sulphur dioxide has been absorbed by the wine. Moreover, the sulphur burns incompletely and the volatilized sulphur acted upon by the yeast may produce sulphuretted hydrogen. Other sulphur compounds are also produced during the burning to some of which the so-called sulphur taste of wine is said to be due. Several devices have been invented to decrease these defects but none remove them completely and progressive wine-makers are adopting more reliable sources.

An improvement is the use of potassium metabisulphite ($K_2S_2O_5$) a salt which can be obtained in the requisite purity in commerce and which contains 50 per cent by weight of sulphur dioxide. The amount of potash added by this salt in the doses used, is very small, and far within the limits of variation between different wines. By the use of this salt, exact amounts of sulphur dioxide can be applied both to white and red wines. Other sulphites are not permissible.

The best source of the acid, recently brought into limited use, is the liquefied gas, which can be manufactured comparatively cheaply in great purity. By its use all the benefits of sulphurous acid are obtained and the defects eliminated.

Some grapes, owing to their composition, especially their high acidity, are very resistant to the attacks of injurious bacteria. Others, owing to their low acidity or highly nitrogenous nature, are very susceptible. The addition of tartaric or citric acid to the latter has therefore a deterring effect on some of the most dangerous forms. It is seldom necessary, however, to modify the composition for this purpose if the other means of control are used. The addition of acid or its decrease by dilution should be solely for the direct improvement of the taste.

The quality and character of the wine depends greatly on the temperature of fermentation. If too low, the fermentation may be unduly prolonged, the wine yeast may have difficulty in overcoming its competitors and the wine may remain inferior and cloudy. With red wine the desired color, tannin and body may not be secured. On the other hand, if the temperature is too high the results are worse. The growth of bacteria is promoted, injuring the wine by the volatile acid and displeasing flavors produced and preventing the proper action of the yeast. Such wines may remain sweet on account of the failure of the yeast to do its work and become unpleasantly acid owing to the volatile acids produced by the bacteria.

Some means of controlling the temperature is therefore always needed. Where heat is deficient it may be supplied by direct heating of the must or part of it, or by heating the cellar. Where the heat is excessive, it may be diminished by crushing only cold grapes, using small fermenting vats to promote radiation and finally by the use of cooling machines applied directly to the fermenting wine.

The best temperature for fermentation depends on the kind of wine. For light white wines, the maximum should not exceed 25°, for heavier wines 30°, while for heavy red wines where high extract and tannin are required, it may be allowed to reach 35°. Sound wines can be made at all these temperatures.

As already explained, the ordinary processes of treatment of grapes result in sufficient aeration for the multiplication of the yeast. With grapes containing little sugar, this may suffice to complete fermentation. With sweeter grapes, the fermentation usually slackens when the alcohol reaches 11 or 12 per cent by volume or sooner, unless some supplementary aeration is given. With white wine this is seldom done, with the result that the time of fermentation is prolonged. With red wine, the necessary stirring of the pomace to promote color extraction or the pumping over of

the must in the cooling process usually gives a large amount of aeration which is sometimes excessive. Too much aeration results in extremely rapid fermentation and consequent difficulty in controlling the temperature. It may also have a deleterious effect on the color, especially if sulphur dioxide has not been used.

In any case, the main part of the fermentation should be over in from three to five days in the case of red and in from seven to fourteen days in the case of white wine. With heavy musts, however, there will still remain from .5 to 1 or 2 per cent of sugar. With certain special wines such as Sauternes it is desirable to retain the slight sweetness due to this small amount of unfermented sugar. This is accomplished by the judicious use of sulphurous acid, prompt clarification by filtration or fining and when necessary by pasteurization. The pasteurization tends to remove those proteins which are coagulated by heat and which are the preferred food of bacteria.

In the case of dry wines, protection from bacteria is best obtained by prompt and complete attenuation. Fermentation should not be allowed to cease until all the sugar has disappeared. For this purpose, one, two or more aerations by pumping over are usually necessary immediately after the end of the tumultuous fermentation. The temperature of the wine should not be allowed to fall sufficiently to check the action of the yeast until all the sugar has disappeared.

AFTER FERMENTATION.—As soon as all the sugar has been destroyed, in the case of dry wines, or the desired degree of attenuation has been obtained in the case of sweet wines, all the useful work of microörganisms has been accomplished. The quality and safety of the wine then depend on freeing it from all organisms present and preventing the entrance and action of all others.

As soon as bubbles of carbon dioxide cease to be given off, the yeast and other solid matters will settle to the bottom and the liquid become clear. This often occurs before the fermentation is complete. In this case the yeast should be stimulated by aeration as described above.

If the wine is dry it should be racked (drawn off, decanted) from the sediment into clean casks. The first racking is usually done while the wine is still slightly cloudy during the first month or six weeks to remove the more bulky sediment. If left too long on the yeast the *autophagy* or degeneration of the latter may produce substances which injure the brightness and flavor of the wine.

A second racking is necessary at the end of winter before the spring rise of tempera-

ture tends to renew the activity of the microörganisms which always remain in the wine. A well made wine at this time should be perfectly bright and all solid matters consisting of yeast and bacteria, coagulated proteins and crystals of bitartrate should have accumulated in the sediment.

Racking should take place when possible only in settled weather, when the barometric pressure is high. Low atmospheric pressures diminish the solubility of the carbon dioxide with which the wine is saturated. Under these conditions, therefore, bubbles of gas are apt to be given off, bringing up particles of sediment and rendering the wine cloudy. However long wine is kept in wooden casks, it will continue to deposit sediment owing to chemical changes due to the action of oxygen which pene trates slowly through the wood. Repeated rackings are therefore necessary, occurring at least twice a year until the wine is bottled or consumed.

Abundant aeration is necessary during fermentation. A moderate supply of oxygen is necessary for the proper aging of wine. Experience has shown that exactly the proper amount of pure filtered air will obtain access to the wine for the latter purpose through the wood of ordinary casks of proper size. If the casks are too small the oxidation may be too rapid, if too large the maturing of the wine may be unduly prolonged. The temperature of the storage cellar is the main modifying factor. The warmer the cellar the larger the casks should be.

With sound, completely fermented wines, all aeration, other than that due to the porosity of the wood, should be avoided as much as possible. This is accomplished by keeping the casks tightly bunged and completely filled. Evaporation through the wood continually diminishes the volume of wine and the lack must be supplied by *filling up*, at first two or three times a month and later every month or two. The drier the air of the cellar, the more frequent the fillings necessary.

A light sulphuring of the clean casks into which the wine is racked is usual. This should be practised with great caution. Very little is needed with sound wines, especially if it has been used before or during fermentation and a slight excess will injure the flavor. The amount should not exceed 1.25 g. per hectoliter for red or 2 g. for white wine. One-half to one-third of this is sufficient for old wines. The amount can be accurately measured only when using metabisulphite or the liquefied gas. The utility of the sulphur dioxide with perfectly sound wines is to diminish oxidation; with wines liable to disease to discourage the growth of bacteria.

All the manipulation of the wine should be conducted with strict attention to cleanliness. This applies especially to empty casks, pumps and hoses. These should be thoroughly cleaned immediately after use and, if of metal or other non-absorbent material, kept perfectly dry. Utensils of wood, rubber or other porous material should be preserved from bacterial or mold growth with sulphurous acid.

The clarification of a perfectly sound wine may be facilitated and hastened by thoroughly stirring up the yeast immediately after racking. The yeast in settling carries down much of the finer suspended matter, thus effecting a rough *fining*. Materials such as kaolin, pure silica, sand, charcoal and filter-paper can be used with the same effect. The fining, however, is never perfect and the flavor of the wine is often injured. A very pure clay, known commercially as Spanish clay, is used largely for clearing sweet wines where the flavor is not so delicate. From 75 to 125 mg. per hectoliter are used for this purpose.

The best wines are nearly always fined at least once, immediately before bottling. One or two finings may precede this to hasten aging, defecation and *bottle ripeness*.

The materials used are soluble gelatinous or albuminous substances which are capable of being coagulated and precipitated by some ingredient of the wine. The best of the commonly used substances are Isinglas (Ichthyocol) 2 or 3 g. per hectoliter, for white wines; the white of fresh eggs, 1 or 2 per hectoliter for red; and gelatin, 10 or 12 g. per hectoliter for either.

The proper quantity of the finings is dissolved in a little water diluted with wine and stirred into the cask. The tannins and acids of the wine cause a gradual coagulation in minute particles throughout the liquid. These particles gradually coalesce, forming larger particles which include all the other floating solid matter of the wine as in a net. These larger particles contracted by the alcohol then settle to the bottom, leaving the wine perfectly bright.

The coagulum consists of a combination of the gelatinous matter and the tannin. Some of the latter, therefore, is removed from the wine. With astringent red wines this may be an improvement. If there is no excess of tannin present enough must be added to combine with the finings used. With white wines which contain little or no tannin this addition is always necessary.

The amount to use varies with the quality of the finings and of the tannin and with the composition and temperature of the wine.

To precipitate commercial gelatin of good quality about an equal quantity of good tannin is necessary; isinglas properly prepared requires only from one-half to one-third this amount. Eggs require only minute quantities.

Specially prepared casein of milk is used for fining white wine. Its chief merit is that the acids of the wine alone cause its complete precipitation and no addition of tannin is needed. Many other albuminous substances such as milk, blood and various proprietary preparations are also used, but they are all inferior to the three mentioned and many of them introduce foreign matters such as milk sugar and bacteria which are a source of danger to the wine.

Wines containing many disease-producing bacteria may be injured by the introduction of finings. The evolution of gases due to the bacterial action may prevent the settling and the protein matters introduced will favor the multiplication of the disease organisms. By the use of 5 to 10 g. of sulphurous acid per hectoliter added to the wine immediately before the addition of the gelatin, the bacteria may be temporarily paralyzed and the finings will then settle and remove the bacteria with the other floating particles.

The bright wine should be racked from the finings very soon after the sediment has settled, especially when disease-producing bacteria are numerous. This will be in from ten to twenty days. If the wine is not clear in three weeks it should be filtered.

Filtering is inferior to fining in producing a perfectly bright wine. It is more rapid, however, and is useful in clearing common wine and wines refractory to fining.

Filters of innumerable forms are used. They are of two main types. For rough clearing of very cloudy wines some form of bag filter is usually employed in which the wine passes through a cloth tissue. The passage at first is rapid and the filtration imperfect. As the solid matter accumulates on the filtering surface, the filtration improves but the passage of the wine is retarded. The first wine is passed a second time

through the filter and as soon as the rate of filtration becomes too slow the operation must be stopped and the filtering surface removed.

For wines containing little sediment the filter must be *primed*. This is accomplished by putting some finings in the wine first passed through the filter. The priming is more effective and the output of the filter much increased if a little infusorial earth is used with the gelatin.

For the more perfect clearing of old wines some form of pulp filter is used. There are various devices by which the wine is forced through a mass of cellulose or asbestos pulp and freed from all floating matter. Some of the best of these, carefully used, remove nearly all of the bacteria present.

BEER.

Beer is an alcoholic beverage made from certain cereal grains by transformation of the starch to sugar, dilution with water, and fermentation with yeast. There is usually an addition of hops and sometimes of materials containing sugar. The liquid before fermentation is called *Wort*.

RAW MATERIALS AND MICROÖRGANISMS OF BREWING.

GRAINS EMPLOYED.—Barley, rice and maize are the grains most commonly used, wheat, rye and oats but rarely. Cane and beet sugars and syrups sometimes form part of the fermentable material.

YEASTS OF BEER.—The yeast used is usually one of the many forms of *S. cerevisiæ*. In some spontaneously fermented beer, other yeasts, *Torulæ* and bacteria take part, but in ordinary beers most of these are considered as disease-producing organisms and injurious.

KINDS OF BEER.—The principal varieties of beer are: *lager* beers, fermented with bottom yeasts; *ales*, fermented with top yeasts (and *Torulæ*); *porters*, similar to ale but dark in color owing to the use of caramelized malt; *weisbiers*, in which lactic bacteria are abundant; and certain local types in which bacteria produce considerable quantities of lactic and acetic acids.

Typical Composition of Various Beers.

	Lager	Ale	Porter	Weisbier	Temperance beer
Water	90.40	88.30	87.30	92.00	
Alcohol (by vol.)	4.85	8.00	7.00	3.45	2.00
Extract	4.20	5.54	6.45	4.63	3.95
Sugar	1.60	1.33	1.83	1.71	1.98
Lactic acid	.10	.20	.22	.27	.04
Ash	.23	.30	.40	.16	

Outline of the Processes of Brewing.

Introduction.—The manufacture of beer takes place in four main stages. First, a portion or all of the grain is soaked in water, allowed to germinate and then dried. This produces the *malt* which contains the enzymes necessary for the conversion of the starch into sugar and the disintegration of the tissues of the grain. The malt is then crushed (and usually mixed with unmalted cereals or sugar) and heated with water. This constitutes *mashing*. During this process, the starch changes to maltose and dextrins which with other matters dissolve in the water; then bacteria produce a small amount of lactic acid. The resulting solution constitutes the *wort*.

The *Wort*, by the addition of yeast, is fermented and changed to *beer*. The fourth stage includes all manipulation of the fermented beer to prepare it for consumption.

Malting: Production of Enzymes.—The best malt is made from barley, but for special beers may be made from wheat or other grains. *Steeping* consists in soaking in water to start germination. This requires from thirty-six to seventy-two hours and causes an increase in weight of about 45 per cent. The temperature should be about 12.50°. If higher, injurious molds will develop. If much lower germination will be retarded. The water should contain little organic matter or chlorides, nitrates or iron salts. A little calcium sulphate is favorable. If it contains many microörganisms it should be sterilized by boiling. A very little sulphite of lime or of potassium may be used to discourage molds.

During *germination* several enzymes appear, of which the most important to the brewer are *amylase* which changes insoluble starch into soluble sugar, rendering it available for the growth of the young plant; *peptase*, which performs a similar function as regards nitrogenous matters; and *cytase* which helps in the disintegration of the cellulose. All these are necessary to prepare for the work of the yeast. When the plumule has grown to about two-thirds the length of the grain, sufficient enzymes have been formed. This requires from about sixteen to twenty days.

The growth of the sprouting seed is at this point stopped by careful drying with artificial heat in a kiln. The *kilning* must be sufficiently rapid to kill the germinating seedling quickly, but not too rapid or at too high a temperature otherwise the enzymes will be weakened or destroyed. The enzymes are more sensitive when moist, consequently the heat may be increased as drying proceeds. The process commencing at a temperature of 30° to 35° is increased gradually to 50° to 55°. In twelve to twenty-four hours, the malt should appear dry. The temperature is again raised gradually for another twelve to twenty-four hours from 80° to 100°. The lower the temperature the lighter the color of the malt. Higher temperatures, especially while the malt is moist, produce dark malt.

As soon as the kilning is finished the *radicles* are *removed* by friction and screening in special machines.

Work of Enzymes and Bacteria.—The malt is first *crushed* by pressing between rollers to facilitate the work of the enzymes and the soluble action of the water. If *unmalted grain* is to be used as well, this must be ground and the starch made soluble by heating under pressure with three

or four times its weight of water and a little malt to 80° to 85° for about an hour.

The methods of *mashing* are very various. They consist in general of mixing the ground malt with warm water, bringing the mass to a temperature of 35° to 45° which is gradually raised to 60° to 65° by the addition of hotter water. The action of the enzymes commences, the heated decoction of unmalted grains is added in various ways, and the temperature controlled by additions of hot water or by heating a portion of the mash. The whole mashing process requires from two to five hours according to the methods used.

During the mashing the starch is transformed partly into maltose and partly into dextrins. The ratio of these products will vary according to the amount of amylase present and especially according to the temperature used. At about 60° the maximum amount of maltose is produced; at higher temperature (65° to 75°) the unfermentable dextrins increase. The amount of alcohol and the amount of extract in the beer therefore depend to a great extent on the method of mashing.

During the first part of the mashing, while the temperature is about 45°, lactic bacteria develop. If their action is too intense they will render the beer unpleasantly acid. If moderate, the acidity they communicate to the wort is useful in preventing the growth of the harmful butyric bacteria which might develop.

After mashing, the wort is separated from the solid matters by drawing off, extracting the mash with hot water (*sparging*), and filtration. It is then boiled from one to eight hours according to the result desired.

Boiling sterilizes the wort, kills all bacteria and destroys any enzymes which remain. This occurs almost instantaneously owing to the lactic acid present. Coagulation of protein substances is also brought about, effecting a clarification of the wort. This requires one or more hours, according to the nature of the wort. It is necessary also in some cases cases to concentrate the wort which is done by prolonged heating in open kettles. This may require several hours.

The *Hopping* of the wort takes place during the boiling. Sometimes the hops are added just at the end of boiling; sometimes in two or three portions, one of which may be at the beginning and one after boiling. Hops contain an aromatic essential oil, resins and tannin. The essential oil is quickly soluble and volatile; to preserve its aroma in the beer, the hops must not be boiled too long. The resins are antiseptic and help to preserve the beer. They dissolve with more difficulty and require longer boiling.

FERMENTATION: WORK OF YEAST.—After boiling, the wort is separated from the hop débris by straining. It is then cooled by means of refrigerators consisting usually of serpentine tubes through which cold brine or water runs. The hot wort runs or drips over the outside of these tubes in contact with the air. The final temperature of the wort is from 12° to 18° in top fermentation and 4° to 6° in bottom.

By this means the wort is thoroughly aerated, which is necessary for the proper work of the yeast. It also effects a partial clarification by oxidation which causes a precipitation of solid matters.

The fermentation takes place in two stages, the violent or tumultuous fermentation in vats and the secondary or after fermentation in casks.

During the violent fermentation the temperature is allowed to reach a maximum of 7° to 9° with light beers, 8.5° to 10.5° with dark and 12° to 20° in top fermentations. At the end of the first fermentation the beer is cooled gradually to 3.5° or 5.0° and drawn into fermenting casks where the after-fermentation takes place.

The yeasts used in brewing vary very much. Besides the division into top and bottom yeasts various types of each are recognized. One of the chief characteristics used for this division is expressed by the percentage of the total extract fermented by the yeast. The *Saaz* type leaves all the dextrins and some of the maltose untouched and produces beers light in alcohol and high in extract. The *Logos* type destroys all the maltose and much of the dextrins. The result is high alcohol and low extract. The *Frohberg* type is intermediate. These differences are probably due to the differences in the amount and perhaps in the kinds of enzymes.

The yeasts of spontaneously fermenting beers are of various species, *S. ellipsoideus*, *S. pasteurianus* and others.

To produce fermentation, yeast is taken from previous vats so long as the yeast remains sufficiently uncontaminated with foreign organisms. The condition of the yeast is determined by the character of the fermentation, the degree of attenuation, and by microscopic examination. In breweries where modern pure culture methods are not used, the yeast present is always of several forms or types.

In any case after a certain number of transfers, the yeast deteriorates and finally may become thoroughly infected with bacteria. The bacteria are revealed by microscopic examination. Where pure cultures are used, contamination with foreign yeasts is shown by a change in the time of

spore formation. By this method a contamination of 1 : 200 may be discovered.

When the yeast becomes contaminated, a new start must be made with yeast from another brewery, which is uncertain, or by a starter of pure yeast, which is the only reliable method.

The new start with pure yeast may be made by employing a kilogram of pure pressed yeast or a corresponding amount of liquid yeast and gradually increasing it to the desired amount by repeated small additions of sterile wort. This must be done with special precautions against contamination. Many large breweries use large pure yeast machines which produce directly sufficient yeast to start a fermenting vat.

AFTER TREATMENT.—The violent fermentation requires from eight to eighteen days according to the temperature. It takes place in open vats or sometimes, in top fermentation, in barrels. When sufficiently attenuated, the beer is drawn off into large casks where the slow secondary fermentation takes place at a low temperature and the beer clears by depositing yeast and other sediment. The time required for the secondary fermentation is from six to ten weeks or, with certain types of beer, from two to four months or longer.

A certain amount of dissolved carbonic acid is necessary for the quality and keeping of the beer. This is obtained by tightly bunging the casks at a suitable stage of the secondary fermentation.

The clarification of the beer is sometimes assisted by placing a quantity of chips of beech or other tasteless wood in the casks. Top fermentation beers are often fined by the use of isinglas or animal gelatin. Low fermentation beers are usually filtered.

The beer is then ready for delivery to the consumer and is placed in barrels with precautions to retain the dissolved carbonic acid.

The clear beer may be put directly into bottles with the same precautions. Bottled beers which are to be kept for some time or which are to be shipped to a distance are pasteurized after bottling at 60° to 65°.

DISEASES OF BEER.

Beer may show defects due to imperfections in the raw material or in the methods of manufacture. These are principally abnormal flavors and lack of clearness.

The diseases properly so called are due to wild yeasts or to bacteria. The disease-producing yeasts may be derived from the starter, from the vessels with which the beer comes in contact, or from the air. They

develop most commonly during the secondary fermentation or in the bottle. Some may produce a disagreeable bitterness (*S. pasteurianus* I) or other unpleasant flavor (*S. fœtidus*); many produce a persistent cloudiness (*S. ellipsoideus, S. apiculatus, S. exiguus, S. anomalus.*) They are to be combated by preventing contamination, by proper attenuation and by pasteurizing.

Bacterial diseases were more common before effective methods of purifying yeasts were known.

Many forms of lactic bacteria may affect the beer, rendering it acid and cloudy. They occur principally where the temperature is allowed to become too high and where proper care in the cleaning and sterilization of utensils is not exercised.

Acetic bacteria may occur under the same conditions and give a taste of vinegar to the beer. They are more common in top fermented beers.

Various forms of *Sarcinæ* may cause persistent cloudiness, acid, unpleasant flavors or both. This contamination may be from the air or water and is relatively common. The source of infection is to be looked for in the air or water. Their growth is most rapid at 16° to 20° and is retarded by the antiseptic properties of hops.

Several kinds of bacteria, bacilli, cocci and sarcinæ may cause the beer to become slimy or viscid and injure the flavor. This trouble is particularly common, in spontaneously fermented beer.

Wort and beer, being organic solutions containing very little acidity, are favorable media for the growth of bacteria, many forms of which may cause trouble. With modern methods of using pure yeast, cleanliness and the pasteurization of bottle beer, diseases can be controlled.

MISCELLANEOUS ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.

Cider and Perry.

These beverages are made by the alcoholic fermentation of the juices of apples and pears respectively and come next to wine and beer in the quantities produced.

The composition of the fruit varies very much according to the variety, especially in the matters of acidity, tannin and pectic substances. The following analysis is that of a good cider apple:

sugar	167.0 g. per liter.
tannin	2.4 g. per liter.
acidity (as sulphuric)	1.6 g. per liter.

The pectic matters vary from 2 g. to 25 g. per liter but should not be too high. Pears contain usually about the same amount of sugar as apples, more tannin and much less pectic substances.

The microörganisms occurring naturally on the surface of the fruit are similar to those occurring on grapes, but special forms of *Saccharomyces* are found. Pure cultures of wine yeast are used successfully in cider making where a perfectly dry cider is wanted. Where a small remnant of unfermented sugar is desired, the difficulties of using pure cultures have not yet been overcome. The wild yeasts occurring on the fruit in large quantities usually take precedence.

Attempts to sterilize the juice by heating have not been successful owing to the production of a persistent cloudiness. It seems probable that a moderate use of sulphurous acid as in the case of wine may solve the difficulty.

The principles of the control of the microörganisms, good and bad, are the same as in wine making. The same care in gathering and keeping the fruit and in extracting and handling the juice are necessary.

The fermentation is similar to that of wine, but the cider should be taken off the yeast sooner in order to promote clarification and the retention of a little unfermented sugar.

Cider is subject to the same bacterial alterations as wine and requires the same treatment. It is more difficult to keep when made in the ordinary way and is usually consumed during the first year. It is particularly subject to turning brown, owing to the large amount of oxidase present in apple juice.

The use of sulphurous acid for preliminary defecation, pure yeast in the fermentation, and fining, followed by pasteurization soon after the fermentation, seem to offer the best means of improving present methods.

Fermented Beverages of Various Fruits.

Many other fruits, especially those rich in sugar and with moderate acidity, are used locally to produce alcoholic beverages. The methods of fermentation are similar to those used in wine making, but additions of sugar and water are usually made to correct defects of composition. Very often distilled alcohol is also added after fermentation to preserve the liquid, which is thus rendered unsuitable for an ordinary beverage.

Hydromel or Mead.

An alcoholic beverage made by the fermentation of honey and water is much used in eastern Europe.

Honey contains from 65 to 74 per cent of reducing sugars and from 2 to 10 per cent of saccharose. It is diluted with water to reduce its concentration to 22° Bal.* to 24° Bal. A few yeast cells are usually present in the honey but these are of various kinds and often unsuitable. The use of a good pure yeast is therefore advisable. As honey contains little mineral or nitrogenous yeast food, an addition of nutritive substances is necessary.

The following formulæ are recommended by Kayser and Boullanger to be used in one liter:

A.	Dicalcic phosphate	1 g.
	Ammonia	2 g.
	Bitartrate of potash	2 g.
	Magnesium sulphate	0.1 g.
B.	Maltopeptone	1.5 g.
	Bitartrate of potash	1.5 g.
	Ammonium phosphate	1.0 g.

The same results may be obtained by mixing from 20 to 50 per cent of grape must or apple juice with the diluted honey.

Miscellaneous Fermented Beverages.

Fermented beverages of some kind are made in practically every part of the world. They are very numerous and varied but fall naturally into three groups; those made from the sweet juices of fruits or other plants in which the methods of manufacture resemble those of wine making; those made from starchy materials in which the methods resemble those of brewing; and finally those made from the milk of cows or other mammals which are discussed in Chapter IV, Div. IV.

Belonging to the first group are numerous beverages made from the juices of sugar cane, various palms, and tropical fruits. The best known of these is the Mexican Pulque made by the spontaneous fermentation of the sweet juice of the agave. Little is known about the microflora con-

* "Balling" refers to the special hydrometer for determining the specific gravity of fermented alcoholic products as beer. Its purpose is to indicate directly the percentage of solids in solution at a temperature of 63.5° F.

cerned, but it includes alcohol-forming organisms which produce about 6 per cent of alcohol, and bacteria which cause rapid deterioration and spoiling of the fermented product. The pulque is ready for consumption twenty-four hours after the commencement of fermentation and cannot be kept more than a day or two.

Of the beverages produced from starchy materials the Japanese SAKE, RICE BEER, has been most studied. It is made from rice by the diastatic action of *Aspergillus oryzæ* and yeast fermentation. The process includes three stages. First the preparation of *koji* which consists of steamed rice on which the spores of the fungus are sown and allowed to grow at 20° until the whole mass is penetrated with mycelium. The next stage is the preparation of *moto* which is a thick liquid consisting of steamed rice, water and *koji* in which the fungus transforms the starch into sugar at 0° to 10° in a few days. Fermentation then starts spontaneously, alcohol being produced by the action of several yeasts and lactic acid by bacteria, both present accidentally. In about two weeks the moto is ready. The last stage is the principal fermentation which occurs on mixing together steamed rice, koji, moto and water. This requires two weeks. The liquid is then separated, cleared and stored. It contains a considerable amount of alcohol and can be kept and aged like wine.

POMBE is a kind of beer made in Africa from millet seed by sprouting to saccharify the starch and subsequent spontaneous fermentation in water. It is interesting as the source of the genus *Schizosaccharomyces* which appears to take the main part in the fermentation.

GINGER BEER is an acid, slightly alcoholic beverage made by the fermentation of a 10 to 20 per cent solution of sugar containing a few pieces of ginger root. The fermentation is induced by adding small pieces of the so-called ginger-beer plant which consists of *Bact. vermiforme* and *S. pyriformis*. The bacteria form a thick gelatinous sheath and seems to live symbiotically with the yeast, each developing best in the presence of the other.

DISTILLED ALCOHOL.

INTRODUCTION.

USES AND SOURCES OF ALCOHOL.—Distilled alcohol is used as a beverage and a medicine or for innumerable purposes in the arts and industries. Certain methods and sources employed for the latter purposes are inadmissible for the former.

In all cases, it is made by the preparation from saccharine or starchy substances contained in solution suitable for the work of yeast, the fermentation of this solution, and, finally, the distillation of the alcoholic liquid.

Where the raw materials are sugary, methods similar to those of wine-making, and where starchy, to those of brewing, are employed, modified to suit the conditions of each case.

The principal potable alcohols are *brandy*, made from grapes, *rum* from sugar cane, and *whiskey* from rye or other grains. Many other sources are used and any fermented beverage will, by distillation produce a potable spirit varying in character and quality with the source. Industrial alcohol may be made from any substance capable of undergoing alcoholic fermentation, the limiting factor in practice being, principally, the cost of the raw material per unit of alcohol.

METHODS.

PREPARATION OF THE SUGAR SOLUTION.—*Saccharine Raw Materials.*—When spirits are to be made from grapes or other fruit, the juice is fermented in the same way as for the corresponding beverage and then distilled. The juice, however, is diluted to 20° Bal. or less, as it is not necessary or desirable to have too much alcohol in the fermented liquid. The product is consumed directly as brandy or used to fortify sweet wines. The principal fruits used besides grapes are apples, peaches, plums and cherries.

Industrial alcohol has been made from inferior or spoiled fruits and from cannery wastes, but the cost per unit of alcohol is usually high. The difficulties of fermentation are great, owing to the presence of large quantities of molds and other injurious organisms, and the extraction of the juice is troublesome. A careful use of sulphites and pure yeast simplify the process much.

Sugar cane and its products are used in several ways to produce alcohol. To a limited extent the juice of the cane is fermented directly and distilled. The product is known as *Jamaica rum.* Much larger quantities of alcohol are manufactured from the cane-sugar molasses and appear in commerce as *rum, taffia, arrack* or *neutral spirits.*

For the making of Jamaica rum the juice is pressed from the crushed canes, and diluted with 20 per cent of vinasses (the residue of a previous distillation) to increase the acidity, and give the required flavor.

Cane molasses which contain from 50 to 60 per cent of fermentable sugar are diluted with water or vinasses to 15° to 18° Bal. and partially neutralized with lime when the acidity is excessive.

One of the principal sources of industrial alcohol is the *sugar beet.* This alcohol is also used for the adulteration or imitation of potable spirits.

It may be made by the direct fermentation of the beet juice, extracted by grinding and pressing, by methodical maceration or by diffusion. Sulphuric acid is added during extraction. This facilitates the extraction by setting free organic acids, and represses the growth of injurious microörganisms. The amount used should be such that a minute quantity of sulphuric acid remains free.

Most beet alcohol is made from the coarser *molasses* of the sugar factories. The molasses are diluted to 20° to 30° Bal. with water, further diluted and heated with steam and acidified with sulphuric acid. The sulphuric acid neutralizes the lime which has been used in the manufacture of the sugar, sets free the volatile acids and breaks up the nitrites producing nitrogen peroxide. The liquid is then boiled for about one quarter of an hour to drive off the volatile acids and the oxides of nitrogen which would prevent yeast fermentation. The liquid after cooling is then fermented with yeast.

Starchy Raw Materials.—In the preparation of a fermentable solution from starchy materials three methods for the conversion of the starch into sugar may be used, depending respectively on the action of malt, dilute mineral acids, and certain molds.

The malt used in saccharification may be made in a manner similar to that described for brewing, from barley, oats, rye or maize. As the object in this case is to cause complete conversion of the starch with as little malt as possible, the malt should have the maximum diastatic power. For this reason, germination should be carried further than for brewing and the malt used green. Drying the malt destroys half its diastase.

The conversion may also be accomplished by boiling one part of grain in four parts of water with hydrochloric or sulphuric acid. With the former acid, 10 per cent of the weight of the grain is used and 5 per cent with the latter. The conversion requires from eight to twelve hours' boiling. The starch is first converted into dextrins and then to glucose. If the boiling is too prolonged some of the glucose may be lost by conversion into caramel. The amount of acid and the time of boiling may be much reduced by operating under 2 to 3 kg. pressure. In this case 200 liters of water are heated with 100 kg. of grain and 4 kg. of acid. Conversion occurs in from 40 to 60 minutes.

The power of certain molds, especially mucors, to convert starch into sugar has been utilized. *Mucor rouxii* found in Chinese yeast, *Mucor oryzæ* in Ragi, and related forms have been used for this purpose. This is known as the *Amylo Process.* The grain is first soaked for a few hours, then heated with twice its weight of water under a pressure of three and a half to four atmospheres until soft and the starch rendered soluble.

The liquefaction of the starch is facilitated by slightly acidulating the water with hydrochloric acid. The mixture is then cooled to 38° and inoculated with a pure culture of the *Mucor*. A current of filtered air is then passed through the mass for twenty-four hours, by which time the mycelium has permeated the mass. The temperature is then reduced to 33°, pure yeast added and aeration continued for twenty-four hours longer to promote the multiplication of the yeast. Conversion of the starch and fermentation of the sugar then continue together. The mucor is capable of fermenting the sugar and producing alcohol, but the yeast acts more rapidly.

The malting process is the most commonly employed. The acid process destroys a greater part of the value of the residues of distillation and the amylo process, requiring costly special equipment and large expenditures for fuel, has not come into general use.

The starchy substances used being usually neutral or of low acidity the sugar solutions produced would be very liable to bacterial invasion unless means of prevention were used.

In the amylo process the sterilization of the solutions and the use of pure cultures accomplish this end. In the acid process the minute quantity of free mineral acid remaining in the completed solution prevents any considerable growth of bacteria. In the malting process the injurious bacteria are restrained by lactic acid produced by lactic bacteria, originating in the malt or in the yeast starter. The requisite bacteria are obtained by keeping the starter or mother yeast at 50° to 58° for a certain time. This is a favorable temperature for lactic and too high for the development of acetic or other injurious bacteria. When the acidity of the solution reaches 3.5 g. to 5 g. per liter the dangerous butyric bacteria cannot develop.

Pure lactic acid may be added immediately after saccharification and the loss of sugar, due to the action of the lactic bacteria avoided, but the high cost of the pure acid prevents the practice.

Yeast being much less sensitive to the presence of certain antiseptics than bacteria it is possible to control the latter by the addition of suitable amounts of an antiseptic to the sugar solution. By gradually increasing the amount, moreover, yeast can be accustomed to amounts of antiseptics which render the growth of bacteria impossible. An application of this principle is found in the use of sulphurous acid in wine-making. In Effront's method for the preparation of distillation material, hydrofluoric acid is used. This acid is added to the mother yeast at the rate of 10 g.

per hectoliter and to the sugar solution in somewhat smaller amounts. This results in the inhibition of lactic, butyric and other bacteria and an increase in the fermentative power of the trained yeast.

FERMENTATION.—The sugar solution properly diluted and acetified or sterilized is fermented by the addition of a mother yeast, usually taken from a previous fermentation.

The original yeast may be obtained by a spontaneous fermentation as is usual in the manufacture of rum. Such a yeast is always impure, containing various yeasts, molds and bacteria, and is therefore very variable and uncertain in its results.

In the fermentation of beet juice and beet molasses, beer yeast of the Frohberg type or special distillers yeasts are used. A starter or mother yeast is prepared for each vat or the process is made continuous by leaving one-third to one-half of the contents of a fermented vat to start a fresh addition of the sugar solution. With the latter method the yeast in time becomes weak and badly contaminated and a new start must be made with fresh yeast.

In the fermentation of solutions made from potatoes, corn or other starchy substances, each vat is started with a mother yeast. The temperature should be kept below 30° by means of refrigeration, otherwise alcohol will be lost by the multiplication of bacteria.

By the use of pure yeast, the yield in alcohol is greater as no sugar is wasted in the production of lactic acid. The cost, however, is greater owing to the necessity of the use of more heat in sterilization.

The fermentation of sugar-cane molasses for the production of arrack is brought about by the use of a mother yeast called *tapej*, prepared from *ragi* or Java yeast.

Tapej is made by mixing powdered ragi with boiled rice. In two days the rice is reduced to a semi-fluid condition and contains bacteria, molds and yeasts. The bacteria seem to have no part in the process but when too numerous are injurious. The mold *Mucor oryzæ* converts the rice starch into sugar and the yeast *S. vordemanni* produces alcohol from the sugar. The other molds present are more or less injurious.

CHAPTER VII.*

THE MANUFACTURE OF VINEGAR.

ACETIC FERMENTATION.

NATURE AND ORIGIN OF VINEGAR.—Vinegar is a condiment made from various sugary or starchy matters by alcoholic and subsequent acetic fermentation. It should contain from 4 to 8 per cent of acetic acid and natural flavoring, coloring and other matters, varying according to its origin.

Acetic acid (CH_3COOH) is a monobasic organic acid the second in the fatty acid series. It is a colorless liquid with a strong suffocating odor, crystalizing when pure at 16.7° and at lower temperatures when diluted with from 1 to 13 per cent of water. Its specific gravity is 1.08 at 0° and it boils at 118° under 760 mm. pressure, producing an inflammable vapor. It is a solvent of many organic substances and is soluble in water and alcohol in all proportions.

The metallic acetates are poisonous and are formed in most cases by simple contact of metal and acid. Certain alloys of tin resist the action of the acid.

Acetic acid is formed by the oxidation of ethyl alcohol which takes place in two stages according to the following reactions:

$$\underset{\text{Ethyl alcohol}}{C_2H_6O} + O = \underset{\text{Acetic aldehyde}}{C_2H_4O} + \underset{\text{Water.}}{H_2O}$$

$$\underset{\text{Acetic aldehyde}}{C_2H_4O} + O = \underset{\text{Acetic acid.}}{C_2H_4O_2}$$

These reactions may be brought about by chemical means, but in practice they are due to the action of certain microörganisms, mainly bacteria. Acetic acid is also made by the distillation of wood but the product is not suitable for consumption.

VINEGAR BACTERIA.—If wine, beer or a similar organic solution con-

* Prepared by F. T. Bioletti.

taining alcohol, is exposed freely to the air, it soon becomes covered with a film, the alcohol disappears, is replaced by acetic acid and the liquid is converted into vinegar.

This film, the *Mycoderma aceti* of Pasteur, consists of bacteria cohering by means of a glutinous sheath surrounding each cell, forming a zooglea. If the film is undisturbed, the liquid remains clear until converted into vinegar, if disturbed, portions may sink, new films form and finally a large gelatinous zoogleic mass, "the mother of vinegar," may form in the liquid.

Sometimes, especially on liquids containing sugar and large amounts of alcohol, such as sweet wines, the film formed consists, not of bacteria, but of a yeast-like fungus, *Mycoderma vini.*

Wines which have been sterilized, often remain without acetifying for a considerable time. Those containing traces of sulphurous acid acetify slowly and with difficulty. Ordinarily at warm temperatures, exposed wines develop a bacterial film very rapidly owing to the almost constant presence of some acetic bacteria in all wines.

Hansen was the first to show that the vinegar bacteria included more than one species. He isolated and described three species concerned with the spontaneous souring of beers. Later it was shown by A. J. Brown, Henneberg and others that several other species commonly occurred in vinegar factories and that many more were capable of producing acetic acid in small amounts. The species which have been most thoroughly studied and which seem to occur most usually in vinegar factories are *Bact. aceti, Bact. pasteurianum, Bact. kützingianum, Bact. xylinum,* short descriptions of which follow:

Bacterium aceti (Kützing), Hansen. This species consists of rods about 1μ or 2μ in length, somewhat constricted in the middle and lying in parallel chains in the surface film. This film is moist, smooth, veined, and forms in about twenty-four hours at 34°. On wort gelatin, it forms gray, waxy, raised colonies which are usually round, with unbroken edges but sometimes star-shaped and consisting of separate rod-shaped cells.

Bacterium pasteurianum, Hansen.—The cells of this species are somewhat larger than those of *aceti* and more commonly produce thread-like and swollen involution forms. The film is dry and soon becomes wrinkled. Colonies on wort gelatin are smaller than those of *aceti*, rugose, and the cells retain their arrangement in chains. The mucilaginous sheath is stained blue with iodine-potassium iodide solution, in this differing from *Bact. aceti* (Fig. 88).

Bacterium kützingianum, Hansen.—The cells resemble those of *Bact. aceti*, but are usually free or in pairs. The film resembles that of *Bact. aceti* but has a tendency to

climb up the sides of the flask above the liquid. The colonies on wort gelatin are smooth and shiny. The mucilage stains blue with the iodine solution.

Bacterium xylinum, A. J. Brown.—This species forms a thick tough, leathery film, the gelatinous substance of which stains blue with iodine and sulphuric acid.

B. acetigenum, *B. oxydans*, and *B. industrium* are motile species.

All species are strictly aerobic and grow quickly only when freely supplied with oxygen. This oxygen is necessary for the acetification of the alcohol. Duclaux has calculated that one centigram of the bacterial film is capable of uniting 1.3 g. of oxygen to alcohol, 130 times its own

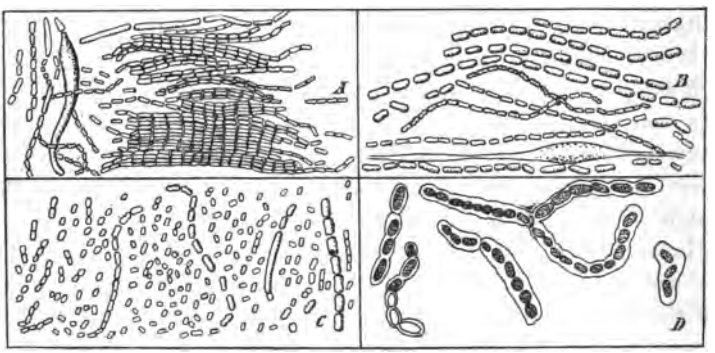


FIG. 88.—Vinegar bacteria. *A*, *Bact. aceti; B*, *Bact. pasteurianum; C*, *Bact. kützzingianum; D*, *Bact. pasteurianum*, showing mucilaginous sheath. (*After Hansen.*)

weight. The optimum temperature for most species is about 34° and the range of temperature at which they grow is between 4° and 7° to 42°. They all form acetic acid from ethyl alcohol, propionic acid from propyl alcohol and most of them gluconic acid from dextrose. *B. industrium* and *B. oxydans*, according to Henneberg, can form acids from a large number of sugars and related substances, including saccharose, maltose starch, dextrin, glycerin and mannit.

The presence of too much alcohol prevents the growth of acetic bacteria, the limit being about 14 per cent under manufacturing conditions. At 14 per cent and above, the film forms with difficulty, and the oxidation of the alcohol is incomplete, aldehyde and irritating products being formed. Acetic acid in amounts above 10 to 12 per cent is moreover antiseptic to the bacteria. Below 14 per cent of alcohol, the bacteria develop readily and produce in suitable solutions, besides acetic acid, agreeable ethers which are more abundant when the oxidation is slow. Below 1 or 2 per

cent of alcohol, the bacteria attack these ethers, and finally the acetic acid itself causing complete oxidation according to the equation:

$$C_2H_4O_2+4O=2CO_2+2H_2O.$$

The addition of a new supply of alcohol, however, immediately arrests this reaction. In practice the acetification should be stopped when the alcohol has fallen to 1 or 2 per cent, otherwise there is a loss of flavor and of acetic acid, which may continue until all the acid is destroyed.

The length of time during which the acetic bacteria retain their vitality varies with the moisture and the temperature. In nutrient solutions, they live from one to as many as ten years; in the dry state, from three months at ordinary temperatures, to twelve months at 2°.

Processes of Manufacture.

Raw Materials.—Originally vinegar was made from wine, as indicated by the etymology of the word which means "acetified wine." Later, other alcoholic beverages such as cider and beer were used for the same purpose. In these liquids, the acetic bacteria find all the mineral and organic matters necessary for their development, together with alcohol in amounts favorable for acetic fermentation. At present, a large number of materials containing alcohol, or starchy and sugary matters, which, by preliminary yeast fermentation, can be changed into alcohol are used as sources of vinegar. The most important of these are honey, molasses, and various fruit juices.

All these materials make wholesome vinegar of varying degrees of quality. Those of wine and cider are usually classed as the best, and those of malt and honey next. The great bulk of the vinegar of commerce, however, at present is made by the acetification of distilled alcohol. This is not vinegar strictly speaking but an imitation, consisting of a dilute solution of acetic acid without the various flavors which are an essential part of pure vinegar. In order to give it a semblance of the latter, it is often colored with caramel and flavored with various substances.

Other imitations of vinegar sometimes appear on the market, containing wood vinegar, or even mineral acids. These, however, are more or less poisonous and their sale is usually forbidden by law.

FERMENTATION.—If the raw material to be used is starchy or sugary, it must be first changed into an alcoholic liquid containing from 6 to 12 per cent of alcohol by volume. This is accomplished by one of the methods discussed in the preceding chapter. This alcoholic fermentation must be kept rigidly distinct from the acetification and is best carried out in a separate building. The yeast must finish its work before the bacteria commence theirs. The reason for this is that yeasts are very sensitive to acetic acid and a small quantity may paralyze their activity and prevent the change of all the sugar into alcohol, with a consequent loss of strength and quality in the final product.

The quality of the vinegar will depend on the quality of the raw material from which it is made. Wine or cider spoiled by bacterial fermentation, moldy casks, etc., will make inferior vinegar. An exception to this may be made of so-called "pricked" wines, which are simply wines in which acetic fermentation has started spontaneously. The wine or other alcoholic liquid should be perfectly clear and clean tasting and, if necessary, should be fined, filtered or pasteurized immediately before use. It should contain no antiseptic which would interfere with the development of the acetic bacteria. Sulphurous acid is particularly troublesome in this respect, and should be removed or oxidized by thorough aeration.

Commerical alcohols made from corn, potatoes, beets, molasses and other products can be used. The special flavors of these alcohols, due to their origin, disappear almost completely in the vinegar. This, however, is not true of denatured alcohol or that containing methyl alcohol or acetone.

The alcohol must be diluted to from 10 to 12 per cent by volume, and then made suitable for the growth of acetic bacteria by the addition of nutritive substances containing nitrogen and phosphates. This is accomplished usually by adding 10 per cent of wine, beer, malt-extract, yeast decoction, or similar material to the diluted alcohol. The waste liquids from a brandy distillery may be used instead of water for dilution. After resting a few days, the mixture is filtered and is then ready for acetification.

Before starting the acetic fermentation, it is a usual and good practice to add about 10 per cent of good vinegar to the liquid, which is thus rendered acid and therefore less liable to alteration by injurious bacteria and other microörganisms.

All the processes of vinegar-making depend on the same principle,

which is to expose the liquids prepared as above to the action of acetic bacteria with full access of atmospheric oxygen at a suitable temperature. The rapidity of the process depends on the number of active bacteria present, the nutritive value of the liquid, the temperature, and especially on the free access of oxygen.

STARTERS AND PURE CULTURES.—The 10 per. cent of vinegar added to the liquid to be fermented usually contains sufficient bacteria to insure a prompt start. Where this is not the case, a starter may be prepared by exposing a suitable liquid in a shallow vessel to the air of a warm room for several days. Any liquid containing about 4 per cent of alcohol, 2 per cent of acetic acid and a moderate amount of nitrogenous matter is suitable. A decoction made by boiling 50 g. of fresh yeast in 1,000 c.c. of water, filtering and adding the proper amount of vinegar and wine or beer will serve. After thorough aeration, such a liquid in a few days becomes covered with a film of acetic bacteria. This film may be used as a starter by gently submerging the vessel in which it is formed in the liquid to be acetified, or by removing with a clean sliver of wood which is afterward floated in the liquid.

In practice, such a starter gives a sufficiently pure fermentation of acetic bacteria. The particular species of acetic bacteria, however, is left to chance. Pure cultures of a particular selected form would in all probability improve the certainty of the production of good vinegar, but the method has not entered into general practice.

APPARATUS.—Most metals of all kinds should be avoided as much as possible. The hoops of barrels and buckets may be protected by a coating of paraffin. Pumps may be of wood or of the special alloys already mentioned, or they may be so constructed that they will not come in contact with the liquids.

DOMESTIC METHOD.—A cask of convenient size (40 to 200 liters) is fitted as illustrated in figure 89.

The wine or cider to be acetified, after filtering, if necessary, is poured into the cask until it is about one-half to two-thirds full, the object being to have as large a surface as possible for the growth of the bacterial film. Free circulation of air is insured by a 5 cm. hole in each head of the cask, one near the surface of the liquid and one near the top of the cask. These holes should be covered with varnished metal netting to prevent the entrance of flies.

The top bung hole is then closed with a cork, through which a funnel

passes, furnished at its lower end with a glass or rubber tube extending to a few inches below the surface of the liquid. By means of this funnel new liquid can be added without disturbing the surface film. The lower bung-hole is closed with a cork, through which passes an L-shaped glass tube which serves as an indicator of level and which also can be used to draw off the vinegar.

When this apparatus is working well, from one-fifth to one-quarter of the contents may be taken off every three or four weeks. This depends

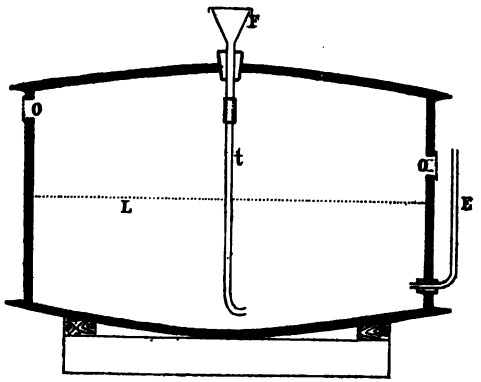


FIG. 89.—Vinegar barrel. *L*, surface of liquid; *O*, *O*, openings for entrance of air; *t*, tube for introducing new supplies of wine without disturbing surface films; *E*, glass tube to show level of liquid and for drawing off vinegar. (Original.)

on the temperature, which should be between 10° and 18°. The vinegar drawn off is immediately replaced with wine or cider which, if added slowly, will, owing to its lower specific gravity, remain at the surface in contact with the bacterial film.

ORLEANS METHOD.—This is practically the same as the method just described with slight modifications to adapt it to large scale operations. It is the oldest commercial method and produces vinegar of the highest quality.

Barrels of about two hectoliters are usually employed, fitted essentially like that already described but with the omission of the funnel and drawing-off tubes.

The wine is first cleared in a vinegar filter. This consists of a wooden vat filled with beech chips which have been extracted by soaking for several

days in cold water. The wine remaining in contact with these chips for three or four days deposits most of its sediment.

The cask is first one-third filled with good vinegar and ten or fifteen liters of the filtered wine added. The same amount of wine is added every week for four weeks by which time the cask is half full. At the end of the fifth week an amount of vinegar equal to the wine added is drawn off and the operation repeated. The vinegar is filtered as soon as it is drawn off, placed in full tightly bunged casks and kept in a cool cellar.

PASTEUR METHOD.—Pasteur long ago pointed out the defects of the old Orleans method and suggested improvements. The main defects of the old method are that it is cumbersome, laborious, slow and costly. There is a loss of about 10 per cent of material by evaporation and the repeated additions of liquid break the bacterial film, which then sinks to the bottom, grows anaerobically and exhausts the nutrients of the solution without producing acetic acid. These submerged bacteria finally form a large gelatinous mass which interferes with the regular progress of the operations, depreciates the quality and necessitates frequent expensive cleanings of the casks. Many attempts, more or less successful, to overcome these defects in accordance with Pasteur's ideas have been made, that of Claudon is one of the best and will serve to exemplify all.

It consists essentially of a wide, shallow, covered square vat, furnished with numerous openings near the top by which the entrance of air can be facilitated and regulated. This vat is filled to the bottom of the air vents with a mixture of four parts of good new vinegar and six parts of wine which has been pasteurized at 55° and, when necessary, filtered. On top of this liquid is floated a light wooden grating which helps to support the bacterial film and prevent its breaking and submerging during the various operations. When filled, the process is started by placing a small quantity of a good bacterial film on top of the liquid which soon becomes completely covered when the proper conditions of temperature and aeration are maintained.

Each acetifying vat is connected with a small measuring vat from which the proper amount of liquid is added every day after a corresponding amount of vinegar has been removed. These two vats constitute a unit, several of which, usually six, are united in a battery. A factory includes several of these batteries.

The batteries are fed from a large vat or reservoir, where the mixture of wine and vinegar is prepared and stored. The vinegar drawn from

the batteries runs directly to filters, thence to a pasteurizer, and finally to the storage casks.

The output of these batteries is from two to five times as great per square meter of acetifying surface as that of the old method; the cost of the operation is considerably less, the loss by evaporation much reduced and the quality equal and much more under control of the manufacturer.

GERMAN METHOD.—In all the methods described, the surface of the liquid exposed to air, where alone acetification occurs, is small compared to the volume of the liquid. In order to hasten and therefore cheapen the process, various devices for increasing the surface in contact with air have been devised. The simplest of these is one sometimes employed in wine-making countries. The pressed pomace of red wine is broken up and placed loosely but uniformly in a tall narrow vat. In a few days, acetic fermentation commences in all parts of the mass. Wine is then sprinkled periodically on top and trickling down over the pomace, it is changed to vinegar by the bacterial film which encases every particle of the mass. The "quick" or German method of vinegar-making is based on this principle.

The apparatus used in this method consists of a tall cylindrical or slightly conical wooden vat provided with a perforated false head a few inches from the bottom and another, similar in structure, at the same distance from the top. The space between these two false heads is filled with long thin chips or shavings of beech wood which have been thoroughly extracted, first with water and then with good strong vinegar (Fig. 90).

In operation, the liquid to be acetified is distributed over the top false head intermittently in small amounts. This intermittent supply is accomplished by various automatic devices. If the supply is continuous, the liquid tends to run in streams or currents in certain parts of the vat and much of the acetifying surface is lost; if too rapid, the bacterial film is removed from the upper part of the mass of beech chips and only the lower part is effective.

From the false head, the liquid passes through numerous small holes to the mass of beech chips, over which it trickles slowly and is acetified by means of the bacterial film which covers them. By the time it reaches the lower false head, the alcohol is in greater or less amount converted into acetic acid. Usually the liquid must pass through from two to five

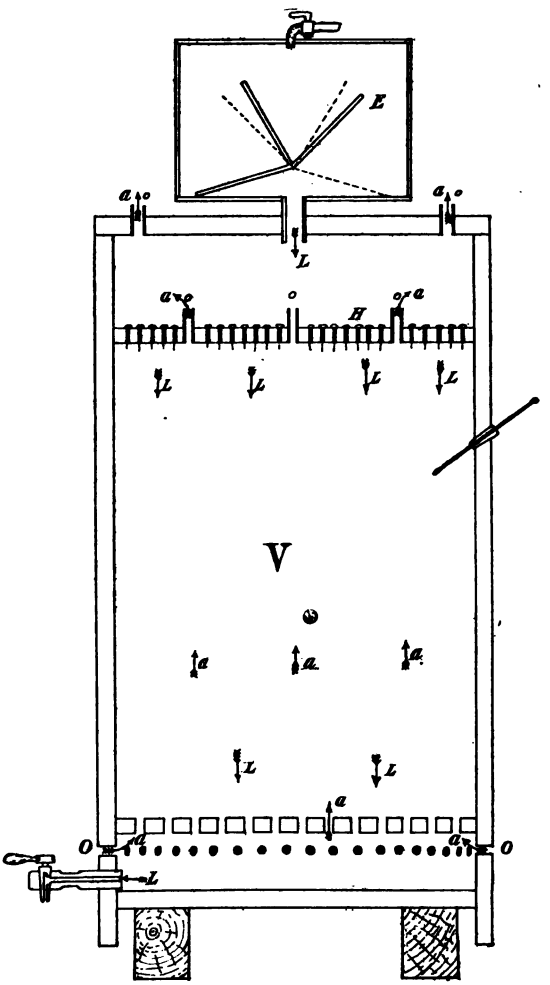


FIG 90.—Rapid process vinegar apparatus. *V*, mass of beech chips over which the alcoholic liquids run from *H; H*, false head with numerous small holes and threads for the slow and equal distribution of the liquid; *E*, filtering trough for the intermittent supply at liquid; *O*, opening for the entrance and exit of air. ↑ path of air. ↓ path of liquid. (Original.)

times or through an equal number of vats before it is completely changed into vinegar. The number of passages depends on the amount of alcohol present, the height of the acetifying column, the rapidity of the flow, the temperature, and on the perfection of the apparatus.

Oxygen is supplied by the air which, entering holes in the vat below the lower false head, passes through numerous holes in the latter, through the interstices between the chips and out through short tubes fixed in the upper false head and holes in the top. The passage of air is insured by the heating of the interior due to the fermentation. It can be regulated by the number and diameter of the air holes.

The temperature, which should be close to 30°, must be carefully regulated. If the temperature rises too high, the loss by evaporation will be much increased; if it remains too low the acetification will be retarded.

Many modifications of this method exist, having principally for their objects the more complete regulation of the temperature and air supply, the recuperation of the volatile matters and the avoidance of the need of repassing the liquid through different acetifying columns.

ROTATING BARRELS.—Several methods are in use which attempt to combine the rapidity of the German machines with the quality of the Orleans method and which are suitable for use with wine and cider. These liquids cannot be acetified conveniently by the German method on account of the large amount of solids and extractive matter they contain. This coats the beech chips rapidly and interferes with the perfect working of the machine.

These methods make use of a barrel filled partially or wholly with beech chips and half filled with the liquid to be acetified. By rotating the barrel at short intervals the liquid trickles repeatedly over the chips and with proper aeration, the acetification is rapid and complete.

AFTER-TREATMENT.—Alcohol vinegars require little treatment. They should be filtered and are usually colored slightly with caramel. Being little more than dilute solutions of acetic acid without ethers or bouquet, there is no object in aging them.

Wine and cider vinegars, for the best results, require aging and careful treatment. They should be filtered and pasteurized as soon as made and stored in clean casks which are well bunged and kept constantly full in a cool place of even temperature. If too dark in color they may be decolorized with pure animal charcoal carefully extracted with acids and water.

Before using or bottling, the vinegar should be fined with isinglass.

Diseases.

The most troublesome pest of vinegar factories is a minute nematode, the *Anguillula aceti* or vinegar eel. It often develops around the edges of the surface of the liquid in vinegar barrels and in the acetifying columns and, if neglected, may cause putrefaction and spoiling of the vinegar. Frequent and thorough cleaning of all apparatus, pasteurization of liquids and light sulphuring of empty casks will prevent its development.

Microscopic mites are sometimes troublesome in neglected factories. They can be reduced by the methods recommended for vinegar eels and their entrance into the barrels or acetifying columns prevented by painting a ring of turpentine or some viscid substance around each air hole.

Vinegar flies (*Drosophylla cellaris*) are often troublesome, but can be excluded by proper screening of buildings and barrels.

Bacteria other than acetic may develop in vinegar and some of them may depreciate its quality. These have been little studied but the most harmful seem to be anaerobic forms which develop in the lower parts of the liquid protected from oxygen by the screening film of the acetic bacteria. They produce butyric acid and putrid odors and, if neglected, may completely spoil the vinegar. Sulphuring, fining, and pasteurization are the remedies.

Darkening or persistent cloudiness may be caused by oxidase as in wine and cider and is controlled in the same way. A similar defect may be caused by the tannic extractive matters of new casks or contact with iron. Aeration followed by fining will remove the cause of the trouble.

CHAPTER VIII.*

THE MANUFACTURE OF OTHER FERMENTED PRODUCTS.

Preparation and Conservation of Food Material.

Compressed Yeast.—Yeast in the form of a thick paste is produced in large quantities for the use of bakers. It should be white, vigorous and rich in nitrogen.

In the *Vienna* method, a saccharine solution is made in a manner similar to that used in distilling, by saccharification with malt and acidification by lactic bacteria. Many grains, principally barley, malt, rye and corn, are used. A mixture of the three gives a solution which has the required concentration and the proper degree of viscosity to facilitate the separation of the yeast.

The yeast is obtained by skimming off the surface and, after separating from impurities by screening, washing and pressing it.

In the method by *aeration*, a clear, saccharine, acid liquid is prepared and fermentation conducted with thorough aeration by means of compressed air. The yield of yeast is about double by this method and the yield of alcohol considerably less.

As the fermentation takes place in a clear solution the yeast is obtained by settling and decantation in a sufficiently pure condition. It is then washed and pressed as in the other method.

Bread.—The raising of the dough to which the lightness and porosity of bread are due is caused by the production of carbon dioxide by yeast fermentation. The yeasts are always accompanied by bacteria and the character of the bread is determined in great part by the extent of bacterial fermentation.

If we make a *dough* of flour and water and allow it to stand in a warm place it will rise slowly. Yeasts and bacteria, occurring naturally in the flour and water, are the causes. Bread is sometimes made in this way (Graham bread, salt-rising bread). The rising is more or less

* Prepared by F. T. Bioletti.

uncertain and the flavor and acidity of the bread very variable, owing to differences in the kind and degree of bacterial action. Many yeasts and a large number of bacteria have been isolated from the spontaneous fermentation of dough. Among the bacteria are forms producing lactic and acetic acids, others which dissolve gluten and transform starch into sugar and others which produce alcoholic fermentation with evolution of carbon dioxide.

Usually the dough is *leavened* by incorporating more or less impure yeast. Bread yeast may be prepared by allowing a culture medium composed of water, sugar, hops and potatoes with a little salt to ferment spontaneously, but the results are uncertain.

Usually, in the United States, pressed yeast is employed. In some cases the yeast from breweries is used. In most parts of Europe a leaven made from a piece of dough kept over from the last baking is preferred.

In a general way, the process consists in making a thick dough or thinner *sponge* by thoroughly mixing the flour with water, yeast or leaven and a little salt. This mixture is then allowed to stand in a warm place (70°–90°) to promote the growth and multiplication of the microörganisms. It is then kneaded, usually with more flour and put aside to rise. This kneading with fresh flour and rising may be repeated several times.

If a large quantity of a relatively pure yeast is used, the rising will be rapid, there will be little bacterial action and only one kneading is necessary. This is the method commonly employed in the bakeries in the United States. Bread made in this way is usually of fine grain, white and flavorless. It dries out very rapidly and is palatable only when very fresh.

In the common household method, a similar amount of yeast is mixed in a thin batter or sponge and allowed to multiply for ten to eighteen hours. This batter is then thickened to a stiff dough and allowed to rise until it doubles its volume. A second kneading is then given and a little more flour added. After rising again for a few hours it is baked.

Bread made in this way is usually somewhat more open in texture, not so white and with more flavor. It dries less rapidly and remains palatable for two or three days. The difference seems to be due principally to the action of bacteria on the gluten and other nitrogenous substances in the latter case. The bacterial action, however, is not sufficient to give a perceptible acidity.

Where leaven made from old dough is used, as in most parts of Southern Europe, the part of bacteria in the fermentation is much greater.

The bread has a thicker and firmer crust, a fuller flavor and a distinct acidity which is often excessive. It holds its moisture well and keeps for a week longer.

The making of so-called French bread, as it is carried out in Paris, is a successful attempt to combine the good qualities of the above extremes and to avoid their defects. It is based on the fact that where a leaven consisting of a mixture of yeast and bacteria is used, the yeast develops more rapidly at the beginning and the bacteria at the end. By successive additions of flour and aeration by repeated kneading, sufficient yeast growth is obtained to make the bread light and the bacteria kept within the limits necessary for flavor and keeping qualities without causing undue acidity.

VEGETABLES.—Various vegetables, cabbage (sauerkraut), string-beans, cucumbers, etc., can be preserved by covering them with weak brine and allowing them to undergo spontaneous fermentation out of contact with the air.

The vegetables are cleaned, cut into pieces of convenient size, mixed with 1 to 3 per cent of salt and tightly packed in a fermentation vessel of wood, earthenware or cement. A perforated cover is placed on top and weighted down with stones. The vegetable juices are forced out by the combined action of the salt and pressure and the solid matter reduced in volume one-third or one-half.

A gaseous fermentation commences within twenty-four hours if the temperature is favorable, 18° to 20°, and continues for several weeks. At the end of this time the sugar in the juices has been destroyed and acids, principally lactic, produced to the extent of .5 to 1.0 per cent. The liquid is then drawn off and replaced with 4 to 8 per cent of brine in which the vegetables will keep in good condition for a long time if kept from the air.

The fermentation is due to a large number of microörganisms originating on the surface of the vegetables and in the water. The yeasts attack the sugar and exhaust the oxygen. The lactic bacteria at the same time produce lactic acid. This is the principal fermentation and produces the acidity to which the conservation of the mass is due. Many other substances are formed by the complex fermentation, the principal pro-

ducts being alcohol, succinic acid, volatile acids, mannit, amid-bodies, carbon dioxide, hydrogen, methane and various aromatic esters.

Weiss has isolated 65 different species of bacteria from sauerkraut. Most of these are probably indifferent or harmless, and some harmful. When the process is successful the lactic bacteria multiply rapidly from the first and quickly produce enough acidity to restrain growth of the harmful, among the worst of which are the butyric bacteria.

STARCH.—Starch is prepared from potatoes, corn, wheat, flour and other amylaceous substances. The present method of separation is by chemical means. Formerly it was accomplished by a complex fermentation.

For the fermentation method the grain is soaked in water until soft, then ground and made into a paste which is allowed to ferment spontaneously or started with a leaven taken from a previous fermentation. Alcoholic, lactic and butyric microörganisms attack the sugar while others attack the gluten and cellulose. The fermentation lasts from twelve to twenty-five days according to the temperature and the resistance of the raw materials.

During fermentation lactic and butyric acid, hydrogen sulphide, ammonia and carbon dioxide with traces of alcohol and acetic acid are produced. The process is stopped as soon as gas ceases to be given off and before putrid fermentation sets in. The starch which is set free settles to the bottom and is separated by decantation, washing and screening.

The washed starch is then allowed to settle for three or four days in water. The sediment that is formed consists of three layers, the top consisting principally of gluten, the second of gluten and starch and the bottom of comparatively pure starch. The layers are separated and the starch extracted from the two upper layers by repeated washings on inclined planes. The starch, owing to its higher specific gravity, remains near the lower parts of these planes.

SUGAR.—In the manufacture of sugar microörganisms have no useful part but many forms may be injurious and cause serious losses. The juices of beets and sugar cane and the saccharine liquids obtained by presses or diffusion batteries form excellent media for the multiplication of many *Saccharomyces* and bacteria. They are controlled by cleanliness, rapidity of handling, and sterilization by heat. They are injurious by destroying sugar and thereby diminishing the yield, by inverting a portion

of the saccharose and rendering the crystallization difficult and by forming gelatinous masses in the liquids.

Many of them are very resistant to heat. *S. zopfii* withstands a temperature of 66° for half an hour. *Streptococcus mesenterioides* forms chains of cocci surrounded by voluminous gelatinous sheaths which unite in zoogloeic aggregations sometimes very troublesome in sugar factories. On account of its sheath it is very resistant to adverse conditions. It retains its vitality after drying for three and a half years. It is not killed by heating to 86° for five minutes and occurs in the hot liquids of the diffusion batteries.

TOBACCO.—If tobacco leaves are simply dried they do not contain the aromas desired by smokers; they contain large amounts of protein substances that give a bad odor to the smoke and they are often too rich in nicotin.

To overcome these defects the dried leaves are piled in masses, moistened and allowed to undergo a fermentation which raises the temperature to 50° to 55°. Sometimes the leaves are then sprinkled with a solution containing sugar, honey, various aromatic substances and sometimes alcohol and passed through another fermentation.

The leaves are then tied up in bundles, partially dried, and pressed into boxes where another slow fermentation often takes place.

The principal chemical changes which take place in this "curing" of tobacco are a considerable diminution of the nicotin, the destruction of nitrates and the production of ammonia and sometimes of butyric acid.

There are three theories as to the cause of these changes. According to Suchsland they are due to bacterial activities and by the use of pure cultures he claims to have much improved ordinary tobacco.

According to Nessler and Schlössing the bacteria are useful only in raising the temperature of the mass which is thus made more subject to the action of atmospheric oxygen. This is the immediate cause of the chemical changes.

The third theory is that of Loew who ascribes the changes to the action of enzymes, oxidases, peroxidases and catalases existing in the leaves of the tobacco.

It seems probable, according to many investigators, that the changes are due in the first place to hydrolyzing, proteolytic and oxidizing enzymes, and that these diastatic transformations are supplemented by the bacteria

which destroy nitrates and produce ammonia; variations in these various factors account for variations in the characteristics of tobacco.

PREPARATIONS AND CONSERVATION OF MISCELLANEOUS PRODUCTS.

INDIGO. This dye was formerly made only from certain species of *Indigofera*, principally *I. tinctoria*. This plant contains a glucoside *indican*, which by fermentation and oxidation yields *indigo*.

The plants are placed in water at a temperature of 25° to 35° and undergo a spontaneous alkaline fermentation which splits up the indigo into a sugar (*indiglucin*) and *indigo white* which remain in the solution. This solution is then thoroughly aerated and the indigo white oxidized into *indigo blue* which is insoluble and forms a sediment. This sediment is dried and constitutes the old indigo of commerce.

Many bacteria are found in the fermenting liquid, but the cause of transformation has been shown to be a specific form, *Bacillus indigogenus*, closely related to Friedlander's pneumonia bacillus. It is strongly aerobic and surrounded by a gelatinous envelope.

Retting.—The separation of the fibers of flax, hemp, ramie and similar plants is brought about by a complex spontaneous fermentation. The plants are either left on the surface of grassy meadows exposed to alternate wetting and drying or immersed in water. In either case, the tissues are gradually disintegrated by microbial action, more rapidly in the wet process.

The fermentation, principally bacterial, is due to many species. Several have been described as being the principal agent in the process but it is probable that the effects are due to the united action of several, both ærobic and anaerobic.

Among the forms to which the retting has been attributed are *B. amylobacter* of van Tieghem, an anaerobic form which attacks the pectic matters and to some extent the cellulose. *Granulobacter pectinovorum* of Beyerinck and van Delden, also anaerobic, transforms the pectic matters into sugars which it decomposes, producing butyric acid. Many other forms have been described and part of the work has been ascribed to *Mucor*, *Penicillium* and various molds.

Cultures of *Granulobacter pectinovorum* and other forms have been successfully used to hasten the process.

Tanning.—In the manufacture of leather the hides are first soaked

to remove the salt with which they have been preserved. They are then sweated in a warm moist chamber where a commencement of putrefaction occurs, or steeped in milk of lime. Next they are steeped in a "pickle" containing bran and animal excrements. A lactic fermentation takes place which removes the calcium carbonate by changing it into soluble calcium lactate and causes the hide to swell or "plump" to twice its original thickness.

By these operations the hair is removed and the epidermis loosened from the dermis from which alone the leather is made.

These operations are preliminary and required to prepare the hides for the tanning proper of which there are several methods. In the oldest method, that by the use of the tannin of oak bark or other sources, micro-organisms take some part not yet completely understood. There are several variations of the method but they all consist in bringing all parts of the hide into different baths containing gradually increasing quantities of tannin. These baths undergo changes due to bacterial action, the principal of which is the production of acid. This increase of acidity is necessary to prevent the action of putrefactive bacteria which would destroy the hides.

CHAPTER VIII.*

THE MANUFACTURE OF VACCINES.

INTRODUCTION.

Preventive medicine depends to a considerable degree upon the use of vaccines, antitoxins and other specific biological preparations. Large quantities of diphtheria antitoxin and smallpox vaccine are annually distributed by various Boards of Health and commercial firms. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that all such products should be prepared in the most careful manner and submitted to thorough tests before being used by physicians and health officers. General biological products, such as antitoxins, vaccines, tuberculins and all others which are to be applied hypodermatically should be carefully tested for kind and amount of preservative, purity and potency.

On July 1, 1902, by act of Congress, the Secretary of the Treasury, through the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, was placed in control of all manufacture and sale of viruses, sera, toxins, and analogous products for human use. In order to manufacture and place such products upon the inter-state market any individual or corporation must secure a license from the Secretary of the Treasury through the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service. All candidates for such licenses must allow an official federal inspector the privilege of examining their laboratories, including the details of technic in the processes of manufacture, before securing federal approval. At frequent intervals the Hygienic Laboratory purchases samples of licensed products upon the open market and submits them to careful tests. If the samples of any products are found to be misrepresented as to potency or kind and amount of preservative, or if contaminating organisms are present, the manufacturer is notified to recall from the market the products represented by the tested samples. The federal control of the manufacture of vaccines, sera, toxins and other biological products related to specific infectious diseases, has

* Prepared by W. E. King.

reduced to a minimum the danger formerly involved in the use of such products and has materially increased their reliability.

To one who is not a student of microbiology and preventive medicine, or not familiar with the technic involved in preparing biological materials such as sera, tuberculin, and vaccines, it is difficult to realize the various necessary steps in the production of a safe and active product. The animals used in the work must be placed under quarantine and carefully inspected before being placed under treatment. The sanitary conditions of the stables, operating rooms and laboratories must be of the best. The various manipulations attending the preparation of the materials require large equipment, expensive apparatus and the services of trained laboratory experts. The above precautions must be observed, however, in order that resulting biological products may be thoroughly reliable.

Infection of the animal organism is due to absence of natural or acquired resistance. The natural resistant forces of the animal body may be such that insusceptibility to specific microbial invasion is present; such a condition is called natural immunity. Acquired immunity, on the other hand, refers to a condition in which the natural susceptibility of the animal body is replaced by a temporary or permanent resistance toward specific microbial invasion. Acquired immunity may be active or passive. For instance, acquired immunity may be brought about by the application of a vaccine or an antitoxin. The application of smallpox vaccine causes a reaction in the body, or a mild form of the disease, and brings about a condition of active immunity which is relatively permanent in duration. The use of diphtheria antitoxin, which contains the theoretical antibodies capable of neutralizing the diphtheria toxin molecules, results in passive immunity and affords relatively temporary protection.

Active Immunizing Substances. (Vaccines.)

Vaccines are essentially weakened or modified viruses. Such materials as smallpox, blackleg and anthrax vaccines may be used with safety, as a rule, only on individuals who are free from the specific disease in question, because, if a specific vaccine were applied to a patient suffering from a given infectious disease, the introduction of the attenuated organisms, or virus, would tend to accelerate the infection. The general action of these vaccines is therefore preventive or prophylactic and not curative.

ATTENUATED VIRUSES.—There are several methods which may be employed in attenuating or modifying viruses. The processes involve the treatment of viruses in such ways that they may be injected into the normal animal body without danger of producing serious disease lesions, while at the same time sufficient specific infectious qualities must be present to produce mild reactions. The successful vaccine should be attenuated or modified to the point which represents a happy medium and which clearly indicates both safety and activity. The following are the more important methods used to modify viruses:

Attenuation by growth at a temperature above the optimum, illustrated by Pasteur's method of preparing anthrax vaccine.

Attenuation by passage of the virus through some species other than the animal for which the virus is specific. Smallpox vaccine may be regarded as the result of the modification of the virus by passage through the heifer.

Attenuation of the virus by drying at constant temperature. The Pasteur method of prophylactic treatment for rabies is based upon this method.

Attenuation by chemicals. The growth of certain pathogenic bacteria in the presence of weak antiseptics weakens their disease-producing activities.

Other methods of immunization:

The simultaneous method or hypodermatic application of the virus together with protective serum, as in hog cholera vaccination.

The association or combination of the specific pathogenic bacteria with those of other species as illustrated by the apparent restraining action of yeasts upon pyogenic bacteria and the antagonism which *Ps. pyocyanea* exerts toward *Bact. anthracis.*

The filtration of liquid cultures of pathogenic organisms, such as *Bact. diphtheriæ* or *B. tetani*, and the consequent separation of the organisms from the toxin. The toxin is used to immunize animals in the production of antitoxin.

The destruction of young living cultures of specific bacteria by moist heat at a temperature slightly above their thermal death-point. Heated cultures of *B. typhosus* and *Bact. pestis* are sometimes used as prophylactics against typhoid fever and bubonic plague.

There are many vaccines in practical and experimental use at the present time. Among those which are of recognized value as shown by extensive practical use and reliable clinical statistics, the following are

the most important: smallpox vaccine, blackleg vaccine, rabies vaccine (Pasteur treatment) and perhaps Pasteur's anthrax vaccine. The simultaneous method, or injection of hyperimmune serum together with the specific virus is used in vaccinating against hog cholera, cattle plague (Rinderpest), anthrax and foot-and-mouth disease. Asiatic cholera, bubonic plague, typhoid fever and tuberculosis are treated, practically and experimentally, by various methods of vaccination.

SMALLPOX VACCINE.—The first experiments relative to vaccination against smallpox date back to 1796. Prior to that time, the only specific preventive method used in warding off this disease depended upon the inoculation of healthy individuals with smallpox virus from a mild case of the disease. The present method of vaccination consists of the use of cowpox virus as the protective material. It has not been conclusively determined that cowpox in cattle and smallpox in man possess intimately related causative factors, but notwithstanding this unsolved point, abundant evidence proves the efficacy of cowpox virus as a specific prophylactic against smallpox in man.

In the practical preparation of smallpox vaccine, the virus or "seed" is first secured by removing the exudate from the vesicles which appear on infected heifers. Most laboratories which engage in this work use a stock mixture of cowpox virus which originated from spontaneous cases of cowpox, and which is known to produce active smallpox vaccine.

Great care is exercised in the selection and preparation of animals used in making the vaccine. Calves or yearlings heifers are most frequently used in this work, older cattle being employed in a few European laboratories. When first purchased these animals are placed in a detention stable where they are inspected by a qualified veterinarian and carefully tested for tuberculosis. If, after several weeks' quarantine, they are passed as healthy in every way, they are admitted to the vaccine laboratory after their bodies have been scrubbed with soap and water and a weak antiseptic solution.

The operating room and propagating ward should be constructed with a view to thorough cleanliness. Concrete floors, enameled walls and ceilings and simple, sanitary apparatus should characterize the appointments. Floors, walls, ceilings and all equipment of these rooms should be carefully cleansed with disinfectant solutions at frequent intervals.

After the heifers are prepared for the work, they are inoculated with

the stock virus. The animal under treatment is placed on a special operating table, the ventral surface of the body is shaved and cleansed and with a sterile instrument (curette) the skin is scarified in parallel straight lines over the greater portion of the abdomen. By means of a sterile instrument, the stock virus or "seed" is inoculated in the scarified areas. The animal is then released and placed in the propagating room. During the process of propagation of the vaccine all possible precautionary measures should be used to avoid the introduction of contaminating bacteria. It is important that an attendant be constantly present, day and night, whose duty it is to remove instantly all dirt and feces and keep the room as clean and free from microbial contamination as possible.

At the expiration of from five to seven days, numerous characteristic vesicles will have developed on the inoculated areas of the skin of the animal. These are filled with a thick, sticky exudate. At this time the animal is removed to the operating table, the field of operation is washed with sterile water and the contents of the vesicles are removed with a sterile curette. According to a recent order of the Federal Government all animals used in this work must be slaughtered before the vaccine is obtained and then submitted to careful autopsy. After removing the cow-pox exudate, or vaccine, it is handled under aseptic precautions and mixed with about 50 per cent glycerin, which serves as a preservative. Small portions of the material are then inoculated into guinea-pigs for safety tests and the product is placed in the refrigerator. Under the combined influence of the glycerin and low temperature extraneous microbial contamination gradually disappears. Potency tests of the vaccine are conducted by the cutaneous application of the vaccine on calves, rabbits or on the slightly scarified, scrotal surfaces of guinea-pigs. In addition to the safety and potency tests, inoculations are made into culture media which are placed under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions to insure the absence of harmful bacteria. For the detection of the presence of *B. tetani* the product is submitted to a special test by transferring 1 c.c. into a quantity of glucose beef bouillon or other special culture media, placing the culture under anaerobic conditions and incubating at body-temperature for about ten days. After the incubation any resulting growth is removed by filtration and the filtrate is injected into guinea-pigs. The absence of symptoms in the treated animals shows that no tetanus toxin has been elaborated in the culture and therefore the vaccine does not contain the spores of *B. tetani*.

After the tests are completed, the product is distributed under aseptic conditions, in small, sterile, capillary tubes or upon sterile, ivory points, hermetically sealed in sterile, glass containers, properly labeled, dated and kept in the refrigerator until placed upon the market.

If kept in a cold dark place, smallpox vaccine retains its protective activity for a considerable period. Under the influence of heat and light it gradually deteriorates. For this reason it is difficult to ship the vaccine to tropical countries. Under the average climatic conditions the product should remain active for a period of about three months.

BLACKLEG VACCINE.—The production of blackleg vaccine depends upon the use of a virulent culture of *B. anthracis symptomatici.* A heifer is inoculated with a small portion of the virus and rapid, acute symptoms are usually produced. At the end of about three days the heifer should die. The carcass and ward are thoroughly disinfected, the body of the animal is suspended and, after again carefully disinfecting the outside of the body, portions of the skin are removed and the muscular tissue is inspected. Those areas of the muscles which show the dark color, gaseous formation and characteristic lesions of blackleg, are removed from the body under aseptic precautions. This material is taken to the laboratory and examined microscopically for the presence of the specific organisms. After the muscle is freed from the gross connective tissue, it is suspended in strips or finely chopped, and allowed to dry spontaneously. When the material has dried, it is ground and sterile water is added until the mass becomes pasty or putty-like in consistency. The material is then placed in small shallow pans and attenuated by drying at a temperature of 85° to 100° for six or seven hours. In preparing the "single vaccine" most laboratories attenuate the virus by drying at an average temperature of about 90° for six hours. In addition to the aseptic precautions observed in conducting the above processes, microbial contamination is practically eliminated by the devitalization and probable death of any extraneous vegetative forms during the attenuation process.

The blackleg vaccine is tested relative to the degree of attenuation by the injection of one dose for cattle into each of a series of several guinea-pigs. The number of guinea-pigs which die indicates the degree of virulence of the tested material. Another test consists in the injection of three series of guinea-pigs with the attenuated virus, each pig of each of the three series receiving, respectively, one-third, one-half and three-

fourths of the usual dose for cattle. When the results are correct those pigs which received three-fourths of the usual dose should die, those which received the half dose should show symptoms and recover, while those which were injected with one-third of the usual dose should remain normal. To determine further the potency a heifer may be injected subcutaneously with one dose and a few weeks after the vaccination the animal may be exposed to the disease by receiving an injection of the virulent living organisms. If the animal remains normal the activity of the product is indicated. In order to test the vaccine in regard to safety heifers may be injected with several doses each. The absence of severe disturbances shows that the material may be used without danger.

For the purpose of eliminating possible danger from the use of blackleg vaccine a "double vaccine" may be employed. This consists of two vaccines, each possessing different degrees of attenuation, which are controlled by the degree of heat and the period of time used in attenuating the organisms in the affected muscle tissue. When the final product, either single or double blackleg vaccine, is ready for use it is usually distributed in the form of a powder, prepared threads or small pills. The latter, first suggested by Houghton in 1898, are injected hypodermatically.

RABIES VACCINE.—The successful preventive treatment for rabies or hydrophobia resulted from the brilliant researches of Pasteur. The original method devised by Pasteur in 1885 has been but slightly modified and still continues to be the only practical, specific treatment for rabies. This treatment consists of a series of vaccinations, each vaccination involving the application of rabies virus having a known degree of attenuation. In each succeeding application of modified rabies virus the patient receives increasingly more virulent material until finally active immunity is acquired and the subsequent attack of the disease may be successfully resisted.

The preparation of rabies vaccine begins with the attenuation of a virus having a known degree of virulence. The material may be secured from an ordinary case of "street rabies." A dog suffering from the disease is killed and a small portion of the brain removed. The brain tissue is emulsified in sterile water or salt solution and a few drops of the material thus suspended in liquid, are injected subdurally into a rabbit. This may easily be accomplished by trephining the skull, after anæsthetizing the animal, and with a small syringe inoculating a few drops of the sus-

pension just under the exposed dura mater. The inoculation of ordinary rabies virus usually produces symptoms of "dumb rabies" and the death of the animal in fourteen to eighteen days. In order to increase the virulent properties of the same strain of rabid material, it is transmitted from rabbit to rabbit by subdural inoculations until the incubation period is shortened to about six days. Experience has shown that when the virus has reached its maximum degree of virulence for the rabbit, the animal shows symptoms on the sixth or seventh day after inoculation. When the virus attains this degree of virulence it is called "fixed virus" and may be used in the preparation of the vaccine. The "fixed virus" or spinal cord of rabbits, which have succumbed to the disease in six or seven days, is removed aseptically and placed in a special drying chamber The cords are suspended over caustic potash and dried at a temperature of 23° for a period of from one to ten or fifteen days.

The treatment of the patient consists in the hypodermatic application of the "fixed virus" which has been attenuated by drying. The exact nature of the vaccine used in the initial vaccination and the time consumed in the series of injections depend, to some extent, upon the case in hand. Frequently, the patient is first vaccinated with a suspension of a spinal cord which has been attenuated by drying for fourteen or fifteen days. On the succeeding days of the treatment use is made of the suspension of spinal cords, which have been less and less attenuated. The treatment usually lasts about twenty days or until the patient has received an injection of the least attenuated "fixed virus."

It is very important, when one is bitten by a rabid animal, that the Pasteur treatment be begun as early as possible, in order that active immunity may be secured before the expiration of the incubation period. In many of the larger cities of the United States laboratories are maintained for the purpose of administering the Pasteur treatment.

Hogyes* substituted dilutions of the "fixed virus" for the dried spinal cords. For the initial treatment, a few cubic centimeters of a one to ten thousand dilution was used. In the succeeding injections graduated dilutions were employed. While the work of Hogyes has been confirmed by other investigators, the method is not generally regarded as possessing the safety of the original Pasteur treatment.

DORSET-NILES (HOG-CHOLERA) SERUM.†—To prepare the material

* Hogyes: Acad. des Sciences de Buda-Pest, Oct. 17, 1897.
† U. S. Bureau of Animal Industries, Bul. No. 102.

for this process of immunization it is first necessary to secure a virulent strain of hog cholera virus This may be obtained from any typical outbreak of the disease. A specimen of blood may be drawn, aseptically, from the carotid artery of a pig suffering from the disease, transferred to the laboratory and tested for activity. Frequently, a given strain of virus may not produce the acute form of hog cholera. In attempting to raise the virulence of a relatively weak virus it may be passed through a series of young pigs until it uniformly produces symptoms after four to six days' incubation and death in less than fifteen days. None except a virus having this degree of activity should be used in manufacturing the hyperimmune serum.

The virulent blood used in the process of hyperimmunization should be obtained from susceptible pigs weighing from 25 to 50 kg. (50 to 100 pounds) each. The animals to be used as the "hyperimmunes" should be healthy hogs, each weighing from 45 kg. to 136 kg. (100 to 300 pounds) and possessing either natural or acquired immunity to the disease. The blood is secured from the diseased pig either by suspending the animal with the head down and after disinfecting the neck, head, and nose, allowing the blood to flow from the jugular vein into a sterile pan, or by drawing the fluid aseptically from the carotid artery, after tying the animal on an inclined bleeding table. After the blood is obtained it is defibrinated, the serum separated from the clot, and the clot discarded. The number of pigs necessary to furnish sufficient virus for the hyperimmunization of one hog depends upon the weight of both the virus pigs and the immune hog.

The immune hogs may be hyperimmunized either by the "slow" or "quick" method. In the former, the animals receive several injections at intervals of every few days, each succeeding dose of virus being increased in proportion to the weight of the animal. In the "quick" method the virus is injected in one large dose, the amount being determined by the weight of the animal. The virus may be injected intramuscularly, intraperitoneally or intravenously. One to two weeks after the hyperimmune hog has received the last injection of virus, the animal is bled from the tail, the end of the appendage being severed with a sharp instrument, several hundred cubic centimeters of blood are collected aseptically, defibrinated, a preservative added and the material placed in the refrigerator. This process is repeated several times, at intervals of one week to ten days, when the animal is ready for re-hyperimmunization.

In re-hyperimmunizing, about one half the quantity of virus used in the first process is usually injected. The animal may be re-hyperimmunized two or three times or until it appears to be exhausted. It is then relieved of all of its blood. As a rule the different lots of serum representing the different bleedings from the same hyperimmune hog are mixed and the whole subjected to test. In order to test the potency of the product four susceptible pigs, each weighing about 26 kg. (50 pounds) are inoculated subcutaneously, each with 2 c.c. of virus. Two of these pigs are simultaneously injected, each with about 20 c.c. of the serum under test. If the hyperimmune serum possesses activity the two test pigs should remain in a normal condition throughout, except for the presence of a thermal reaction and slight clinical symptoms, while the two control pigs should show severe symptoms in five or six days and should die in less than fifteen days.

The practical method of treatment in the field consists in the simultaneous intramuscular injection of the hyperimmune serum and virus into healthy hogs. The amount of hyperimmune serum which should be injected varies from 10 c.c. to 70 c.c., depending upon the weight of the hog to be treated. Thus, a hog weighing 34 kg. to 45 kg. (75 to 100 pounds) usually receives 20 c.c. of serum, together with 2 c.c. of virus. The usual dose of virus for hogs above 34 kg. (75 pounds) weight is 2 c.c. For pigs weighing less than 34 kg. (75 pounds) 1/2–1 c.c. of virus should be injected.

ANTHRAX VACCINE.—While several experimental and practical methods have been used in vaccinating against anthrax, probably the most important, at present, is that devised by Pasteur. This method consists in the use of cultures which have been attenuated by growth on artificial culture media at temperatures above the optimum. The inoculation of such attenuated cultures into healthy animals results in active immunization (page 603).

The stock culture of *Bact. anthracis* may be obtained from the blood of a typical case of anthrax. The culture is transferred to agar or broth and incubated. Two vaccines are prepared, the first being less active than the second. Vaccine No. 1 is made by placing in suspension in sterile, physiological salt solution or other liquid, the anthrax organisms which have been grown at a temperature of 42° for a period of fifteen to twenty days. Vaccine No. 2 consists of a similarly treated culture of *Bact. anthracis* which has grown at a temperature of 42° for ten

to fifteen days. Tests of both vaccines for activity and safety are made by animal inoculations. Vaccine No. 1 should kill white mice but should not cause fatal results in guinea-pigs or rabbits. Vaccine No. 2 should prove fatal for both white mice and guinea-pigs, but not for rabbits.

Healthy animals are first injected subcutaneously with about 1 c.c. of vaccine No. 1. Several days or a few weeks after the application of vaccine No. 1, the second vaccine is injected. A severe reaction and sometimes death follows the use of the vaccine. Accidents of this kind have resulted from careless methods employed in standardizing and administering the vaccine. The most important objection to Pasteur's anthrax vaccine is due to the danger involved in the use of the attenuated but living anthrax organisms. Promising results have been obtained from the practical use of anthrax vaccine consisting of the killed and dried anthrax organisms.

Sclavo* advocates the use of the serum from animals actively immunized to anthrax. This method may be employed either in the form of the immune serum alone, or the immune serum and anthrax culture, simultaneously.

Other Vaccines.

The study of vaccines and serum therapy occupies a position of so great importance in preventive medicine that many new vaccines are being constantly added to the list of experimental products. Some of these have been under observation for a considerable time and are recognized as possessing valuable properties. Because of the importance and prevalence of Asiatic cholera, bubonic plague, tuberculosis and typhoid fever, brief references may properly be made to the attempted specific preventive treatments relative to these infectious diseases.

Asiatic Cholera.—Two methods of vaccination against this disease have been proposed and statistics which relate to field tests show positive results in both cases. The method of vaccination resulting from the work of Haffkine† depends upon the use of cultures of the spirillum of Asiatic cholera, attenuated by growth at temperatures above the optimum. Vaccines of different strengths are used. Kolle‡ has proposed the use of heated (killed) cultures of the organism.

* Sclavo: Centralbl. f. Bakt, 1989, 26.
† Haffkine: Brit. Med. Jour., 1895, 2.
‡ Kolle: Deut. Med. Wochenschr., 1897, 23.

BUBONIC PLAGUE.—Practically the same methods of procedure have been followed in the experimental vaccination against bubonic plague as in the case of Asiatic cholera. Cultures of the plague bacillus, killed by heating at a temperature of 60° for one hour, have been used with success.

TUBERCULOSIS.—Among the experimental products for the prevention of animal tuberculosis may be mentioned von Behring's "bovo-vaccine." The technic involved in the preparation of this vaccine is not generally known. Romer* describes the material as being composed of the living tubercle organisms which are dried for a period of thirty days in sealed glass tubes. After this process of attenuation the organisms are injected, in carefully graduated doses, into healthy calves. Field tests which have been made upon calves with bovo-vaccine indicate unsatisfactory results.

In human practice various tuberculins prepared both from the bouillon filtrate and from the cellular elements of *Bact. tuberculosis* are used as therapeutic agents. The latter substances are similar in nature to bacterial vaccines.

TYPHOID FEVER.—The use of killed (heated) cultures of *B. typhosus*, according to the method of Wright,† appears to be a valuable prophylactic against typhoid fever.

BACTERIAL VACCINES. (BACTERINS.)

Opsonins may be defined as the elements in the blood or body fluids which are capable of modifying invading bacteria in such a way that they become ready prey to the leucocytes. In the presence of opsonins, therefore, phagocytic activity is increased. Opsonins are apparently distinct from agglutinins, lysins, and other analogous substances, because different degrees of heat are necessary for their destruction. Moreover, a given serum may agglutinate, or may exert lytic action, without possessing opsonic activity.

Wright and Douglas first advanced the theory of opsonic action, including the suggestion that the subcutaneous injection of a given species of bacteria, killed by heating, conferred to the blood of the treated individual greater opsonic activity toward the species of organism in question. The results of the work of others proved to be confirmatory.

* Romer: Beitrage z. Exp. Therapie, 1904, 7.

† Wright: Phila. Med. Jour., 1900, 6; London Lancet, 1902, 2.

To prepare a bacterial vaccine, as based upon the opsonic theory, the specific organism is isolated and after being grown for twenty-four hours at a temperature of 37°, it is emulsified in sterile physiological salt solution, heated for one half hour at 60°, standarized as to the number of bacteria present in 1 c.c. of the emulsion and a preservative added.

If the patient and attending physician are conveniently situated in respect to a laboratory, the "opsonic index" may be taken before and during the treatment. This consists in the determination of the average number of the given species of bacteria ingested by the leucocytes of the patient, as compared to that which the leucocytes of normal blood are capable of destroying. It is usually found that immediately following the injection of a specific bacterial vaccine there is a "negative phase" during which the leucocytes of the patient destroy a smaller number of bacteria. This is followed by a "positive phase," which gradually tends to return to normal.

The use of bacterial vaccines has yielded excellent results, especially in the treatment of furunculosis, acne, sycosis and other affections caused by pyogenic organisms. The material may be used in the form of "personal" or "autogenous" and "stock" vaccines. An autogenous vaccine is one prepared from a culture of the specific organism isolated from the case under treatment. The latter products, which are prepared from stock cultures of the specific organisms, may be manufactured and placed in stock until needed for use.

CHAPTER IX.*

THE MANUFACTURE OF ANTISERA AND OTHER BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS RELATED TO SPECIFIC INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

ANTITOXINS.

Antitoxins are employed in the form of sera which may be either liquid, dried or precipitated. The immunity produced by the application of an antitoxin is passive and lasts for a relatively short time, usually a few weeks. The immunity is passive in nature because the treated individual receives no substance which stimulates the development of protective bodies, as in the case of vaccination, but rather enjoys temporary protection from the application of theoretical antibodies, the development of which has been stimulated in the blood of some other species. When antitoxin is injected hypodermatically and becomes absorbed, neutralization of the specific toxin molecules begins. Therefore, antitoxins are used both as prophylactic and therapeutic agents.

At present the most important antitoxins are those of diphtheria and tetanus. The great value of both of these is proved by abundant reliable statistics. Mention might be made of many other antisera, some of which are of value as shown by the results of extensive practical use, and some of which are yet in the experimental stage. Among these products are found antistreptococcic serum, antidysenteric serum, anti-hog-cholera or hyperimmune serum, antipneumococcic serum, equine influenza antitoxin and antitubercle serum.

DIPHTHERIA ANTITOXIN.—A culture of the organism may readily be secured from the throat of a patient, by transferring some of the diphtheritic exudate, on a sterile cotton swab, to Löffler's blood serum culture medium. After the growth of the bacteria at incubator temperature, contaminating organisms may conveniently be eliminated by the inoculation of a guinea pig and the isolation of the diphtheria organisms from the tissues. The pure culture is necessary in the preparation of the antitoxin, but any

* Prepared by W. E. King.

given culture should not be relied upon until tests have been made of the final product.

To produce the diphtheria toxin with which the antitoxin horses are treated, the diphtheria organisms in pure culture are transferred to beef broth, contained in large flasks, and incubated at a temperature of 37°. A rapid growth soon takes place, during which the specific toxin is elaborated by the organisms and thrown off into the bouillon. After a period of incubation of about two weeks, the bouillon culture is removed from the incubator, examined microscopically in order to make sure that contamination is not present, a preservative is added in the form of carbolic acid or trikresol, and the organisms are removed from the culture by passing the liquid through a Berkefeld filter. The filtrate (diphtheria toxin) is then placed in the refrigerator until used.

The horses which are used in the manufacture of antidiphtheritic serum, as well as for the preparation of other antitoxins, must be submitted to rigid inspection before being placed on the treatment. These animals, when purchased, are placed in a detention stable for several weeks. During this time they are subjected to a thorough physical examination and to the mallein test for glanders by a qualified veterinarian. Finally, only those animals which are pronounced normal in every way are admitted to the antitoxin stables. The stables which are designed for the antitoxin horses, and the operating rooms, with their appointments, should be constructed with a view to perfect sanitation and cleanliness. Concrete floors, simply constructed, sanitary stalls, mangers, stocks and apparatus, absence of lofts, good water, free ventilation and plenty of light should characterize the quarters.

The antitoxin horses are injected subcutaneously with the diphtheria toxin. The initial dose of toxin usually consists of only a fraction of a cubic centimeter, then increasingly larger doses are administered until the animals are finally able to receive 300 c.c. or more at a single treatment. The intervals of time between injections and the rate of increase of succeeding doses at any given time depend upon the condition of the animal. During this treatment a constant process of antitoxin formation is taking place in the body of the horse. In order to produce a potent serum, the injection of the toxin should be continued throughout the course of treatment as rapidly as the resulting reactions, following each injection of the animal, will allow.

After the completion of the toxin treatment, which usually occupies

a period of about six weeks, the horse is allowed a rest of about two weeks, during which time all the toxin which has been injected is absorbed. The animal is then bled from the jugular vein, under aseptic and antiseptic conditions. As much blood is secured as the horse can conveniently yield. The blood may be drawn through a sterile canula and rubber tube into tall, sterile glass cylinders. After the blood has clotted the serum separates and at the end of twenty-four to forty-eight hours, the clear, amber-colored fluid is poured from the cylinders into large, sterile glass containers, a preservative is added and the material is transferred to the laboratory. The serum is then filtered through a Berkefeld filter.

Each lot of antidiphtheritic serum is submitted to rigid tests relative to potency, safety and microbial contamination. In determining the potency, accurate data are obtained. Varying amounts of the serum under test are mixed with the L+ dose of diphtheria toxin and injected into a series of guinea pigs, each weighing 250 g. *The L+ dose of toxin is the least amount of toxin, which when mixed with one unit of standard antitoxin, and injected into a guinea-pig of 250 g. weight, is sufficient to kill the animal in four days. From the results of this test it is possible to determine the smallest amount of the antitoxin which will protect a guinea pig of 250 g. weight, when the animal has received simultaneously the L+ dose of toxin. This minimum amount of antitoxin represents one unit. Thus, if 1/500 c.c. of the given antitoxin represents the smallest amount which is capable of neutralizing the L + dose of toxin, then the antitoxin would possess a potency of 500 units per cubic centimeter.

In order that the antitoxin may be tested for safety, each of several guinea pigs are subcutaneously injected with about 2 c.c. of the serum. These animals are not released until the observer is satisfied that the serum contains no injurious properties. For the purpose of detection of microbial contamination, relatively large amounts of the antitoxin are placed in culture media and inoculated under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. If, after 72 hours' incubation, growth occurs in the culture media, the given lot of serum is refiltered and reexamined for microbial contamination.

Diphtheria antitoxin is usually distributed in glass syringe containers ready for immediate use. After the product has been tested relative to potency, safety and microbial contamination, it is put up in sterile glass

* See Bulletin No. 21, Hygienic Laboratory, Washington, D. C.

cylinders. These cylinders are so constructed that accompanying sterilized needles and pistons may be conveniently applied and the antitoxin injected hypodermatically directly from the containers. Each container must bear a label indicating the number of antitoxin units enclosed and the date of preparation.

Finally, after the diphtheria antitoxin has been distributed in the glass cylinders, sealed and packed ready for use, sample packages are opened and examined for contamination, usually by two microbiologists. The product is not approved until the independent results of these final tests are compared, and it is assured that microbial contamination is absent.

All antitoxic sera should be kept away from the light and at a temperature of 10° to 15° whenever possible, as the presence of heat and light causes gradual deterioration. Usually a time limit of from eighteen months to two years is applied to diphtheria antitoxin and other antitoxic sera.

It has been demonstrated that the antitoxic content of serum is closely associated with the globulins. Advantage has been taken of this fact in some laboratories in reducing the volume of antitoxin, or concentrating the product by precipitating out the globulins with ammonium sulphate, redissolving the precipitate and dialyzing.

TETANUS ANTITOXIN.—The processes involved in the preparation of antitetanic serum differ but little from those employed in the manufacture of diphtheria antitoxin. The pure culture of *B. tetani* is inoculated into large flasks of glucose bouillon, placed under anaerobic conditions and incubated at body temperature. A convenient method of excluding free oxygen, in the presence of which the tetanus organisms will not multiply, consists in boiling the glucose bouillon before the inoculation, to drive off the oxygen, then covering the liquid medium by a layer of oil. These cultures are subjected to a temperature of 37° for several weeks, after which they are examined microscopically, a preservative is added and they are passed first through a Berkefeld filter, and finally through a Pasteur filter. On account of the presence of spores and the danger attending the contamination of any materials or biological products with the tetanus bacillus, it is important that great care should be exercised in the filtration and preparation of the tetanus toxin. Therefore, the filtration process is best accomplished in an isolated room which is used only for the preparation of tetanus toxin.

Tetanus antitoxin is produced by the injection of horses with the specific toxin and the same general methods and precautions are observed as in the preparation of diphtheria antitoxin. The antitetanic serum is tested relative to potency, safety and freedom from microbial contamination. * The standard unit of tetanus antitoxin is regarded as ten times the least quantity of antitetanic serum necessary to save the life of a 300-g. guinea pig for ninety-six hours, against the official dose of a standard toxin furnished by the Hygienic Laboratory of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service.

Tetanus antitoxin is put up for use in the same manner as diphtheria antitoxin, being usually distributed in glass syringe containers. The product is used in both human and veterinary practice.

Other Antimicrobial Sera.

In addition to diphtheria and tetanus antitoxins, certain other antitoxic sera are rapidly attaining practical significance. At present, however, no methods are in use by which any antitoxins, other than antidiphtheritic and antitetanic sera, can be accurately standarized as to potency. Nevertheless, most of the products can be submitted to rigid tests in order to determine the presence of protective qualities.

Dorset-Niles (Anti-hog-cholera) Serum (Hyperimmune Serum) †. —This product has been described in the preceding chapter under "hog cholera vaccine" (Simultaneous Method). When the hyperimmune serum is used unaccompanied by the virus, either among healthy or diseased swine, the process is known as the "Serum-alone Method."

Antistreptococcic Serum.—Bouillon cultures of *Strept. pyogenes* are killed by heating, and injected into horses in increasingly larger doses. Frequently, the killed cultures used in treating the horses are composed of several different strains of the streptococcus organism. In this case the resulting antistreptococcic serum is designed as "polyvalent," while the serum obtained after the injection of cultures consisting of but one strain of the organism, is called "monovalent" antistreptococcic serum.

In procuring the serum, handling, filtering, preserving and distributing for use, the methods are practically the same as those employed in the preparation of antidiphtheritic serum.

* See U. S. Treasury Department, Public Health Reports, Vol. XXIV, No. 20, 1904.
† See U. S. Bureau of Animal Industry, Bull. No. 102.

The streptococcus antitoxin is carefully tested in regard to safety and freedom from microbial contamination, but no potency test is made because there are no known methods of standardizing the product. Notwithstanding the absence of potency tests, many reports show that the serum is often efficacious in cases of streptococcic infection.

ANTIDYSENTERIC SERUM.—Experimental monovalent and polyvalent antitoxic sera for epidemic dysentery have been developed by Shiga, by the injection of horses with the filtrate from bouillon cultures of the dysentry bacillus. While the product may prove to be of value in the future, at present it is in the experimental stage.

ANTIRABIC SERUM.—Animals which are immune to rabies are bled and the immune serum may be used as a preventive and therapeutic agent. While this product is not often employed in practice, yet it has been shown by various investigators that considerable protection may be obtained from its use.

ANTIGONOCOCCIC SERUM.—Killed cultures of *M. gonorrhœæ* are injected intraperitoneally into large, healthy rams, or other animals. The dosage is increased and finally live cultures are applied, the degree of immunity acquired being determined by frequent agglutination tests of the sera from the animals. The resulting antitoxic serum is prepared for use according to the usual precautions, except that no potency test is made.

TUBERCULINS.

KOCH'S TUBERCULIN (OLD).—Koch's tuberculin is the concentrated, glycerinated, beef bouillon in which *Bact. tuberculosis* has been grown. The active substance of the tuberculin, which is apparently an albuminous derivative insoluble in alcohol, is elaborated by the organisms during their multiplication. The product is harmless for healthy animals, but exerts a toxic action upon those which are affected with tuberculosis. The injection of tuberculin into individuals affected with the disease is followed by a rise of temperature, which begins two to ten hours after treatment, continues for a few hours and finally subsides. Tuberculin (old), used in both human and veterinary practice, is therefore a diagnostic and not a preventive agent.

Tuberculin (old) is prepared from a culture of the human or bovine variety of *Bact. tuberculosis*. Apparently the active product can be

made from attenuated as well as from virulent cultures. The organism is inoculated into beef bouillon to which 5 per cent glycerin has been added. The culture medium is usually distributed in flasks and the tubercle organisms, when inoculated, are carefully placed on the surface of the medium. The cultures are incubated at a temperature of 37° to 38° for six to ten weeks or longer, during which time a heavy growth slowly spreads over the surface of the medium and finally falls to the bottom of the flasks. In the successful preparation of tuberculin it is important that the cultures should remain undisturbed, having access to plenty of air, that the incubator temperature should be constantly maintained without fluctuations, and that the organisms should be allowed to grow until they have completely elaborated the active "tuberculinic" substance. After the growth is complete, the cultures are removed from the incubator and sterilized in streaming steam. The killed cultures are then evaporated over a water bath to one-tenth the original volume, the bacteria are removed by passing the cultures through paper and a Berkefeld filter and a preservative is added. For cattle the dose of tuberculin concentrated by evaporation to one-tenth the original volume, is 0.25 c.c. to 0.7 c.c. Because of the fact that the material is thick and syrupy in consistency and the dose is inconveniently small, it is usually diluted with seven parts of weak carbolic acid solution, or it may be evaporated to four-fifths the original volume and preserved by the addition of 1 per cent carbolic acid. 2 c.c. of the diluted tuberculin is used as the dose for cattle. The product should be tested for activity by treating known tuberculous animals with the tuberculin under test The presence of typical reactions in tuberculous animals indicates the reliability of the product.

In human, as well as in veterinary practice, tuberculin may be applied as a diagnostic agent in various ways. In addition to the hypodermic injection of tuberculin old, as described above, the methods of Calmette,* von Pirquet and Moro may be used. Calmette's ophthalmo test consists in the instillation in the eye of Koch's purified or refined tuberculin. Purified tuberculin is prepared by treating the original tuberculin with absolute alcohol, washing and drying the precipitate. One drop of a 1 per cent solution of purified tuberculin is placed in the eye. A positive reaction is manifested by a congestion of the palpebral and ocular conjunctiva a few hours after the application of the tuberculin. The method

* Calmette: Presse Medicale, 1907, 15.

of Von Pirquet* depends upon the cutaneous application of the tuberculin. One drop of tuberculin (old) is placed on the arm, after cleansing the skin, and the small area under the drop is scarified. Two or more small areas may be treated in this way, as well as a control area treated with sterile salt solution or a solution of glycerin and dilute carbolic acid in substitution for the tuberculin. The appearance of a reddish zone in from twelve to twenty-four hours indicates a positive reaction. This area of inflammation gradually increases somewhat in elevation and diameter and finally subsides in a few days. Moro's† modification of von Pirquet's method consists in the use of tuberculin ointment prepared by the combination of tuberculin (old) and anhydrous lanolin in equal parts. The ointment is vigorously rubbed on a small portion of the skin of the abdomen. A positive reaction is evidenced by the appearance of a distinct granular or papular eruption at the point of application after about twenty-four hours.

Tuberculin (old) is usually distributed in small vials, sealed and labeled. The labels should indicate the amount and dosage and the date of preparation. Under the influence of light and heat the fluid product may slowly deteriorate, therefore, when possible, it should be kept in the refrigerator until needed.

OTHER TUBERCULINS.—Koch introduced tuberculin "T. R." (tuberculin residuum) in 1897 and tuberculin "B. E." (bacillary emulsion) in 1901. The former is prepared by repeatedly centrifugalizing a suspension in water of the dried and ground tubercle organisms. The supernatant fluid "T. O." after the first centrifugalization is discarded and the final product consists of the constituents of the bacteria which are insoluble in water. 1 c.c. of the tuberculin "T. R." should contain the equivalent of 1 mg. of the dry tubercle solids. Tuberculin B. E. is composed of a suspension of crushed or thoroughly ground tubercle organisms in 50 per cent glycerin solution. Each cubic centimeter should contain the equivalent of 1 mg. of tubercle solids. Tuberculin T. R. and tuberculin B. E. are used as therapeutic agents, the latter probably being regarded with more favor by clinicians. The material is administered by subcutaneous injection, the time intervening between successive treatments varying from three to ten days. The initial dose recommended by Wright is 1/400 mg. to 1/6000 mg.

* Von Pirquet: Berl. Klin. Wchnschr., 1907, 44.
† Moro: Munch. Med. Wchschr., 1908.

MALLEIN.

Mallein is prepared from cultures of *Bact. mallei* by practically the same methods as those employed in manufacturing tuberculin from *Bact. tuberculosis*. The product is used for the diagnosis of glanders. A few hours after mallein is injected into glandered horses a severe local reaction and a rise of temperature usually follow. The thermal reaction is very similar to that produced in tuberculous animals by the injection of tuberculin. The local swelling caused by mallein treatment is considered by some to be quite as diagnostic as the temperature reaction.

The stock culture of the glanders organism used in the preparation of mallein should be one which possesses known virulent properties. It is grown at a temperature of 37° for several weeks in flasks of glycerin bouillon having a chemical reaction of about three degrees acid to phenolphthalein. When the cultures are removed from the incubator they are heated in streaming steam, passed through á Berkefeld filter and the filtrate is concentrated, preserved and distributed in labeled vials as in the preparation of tuberculin.

SUSPENSIONS FOR THE AGGLUTINATION TESTS.

Agglutinins are hypothetical bodies existing in the blood and possibly other body tissues, of an individual affected with, or convalescent from, a specific infectious disease. The bodies possess the power of "clumping" and precipitating the specific bacteria which are the cause of the disease in question. Thus, if a dilution of blood serum from a typhoid fever patient is mixed with living typhoid organisms, the specific agglutinins present in the serum will cause the organisms to cease their motion and agglutinate or clump together in irregular masses. Normal human blood serum placed under the same conditions will fail to cause the agglutination of the organisms. The agglutination reaction may therefore be used in the diagnosis of certain specific infectious diseases. The serum must be diluted to a certain degree in order that the reaction may be of diagnostic value, because undiluted, normal serum will cause a positive agglutination reaction in most cases.

The agglutination test is used as a practical aid chiefly in typhoid fever in man and glanders in horses. The test may be conducted either microscopically or macroscopically. In the microscopic method, the

diluted serum from the suspected case is placed under the microscope with the live, specific organisms in hanging drop. In the macroscopic method, the serum is added to an emulsion of the killed (heated) bacteria in small test tubes, and the resulting reaction detected with the naked eye.

The emulsion, suspension or "test fluid" for the typhoid agglutination test is prepared from a pure culture of *B. typhosus*. The organism is grown for twenty-four hours upon agar slant media at a temperature of 37°. The growth is then removed from the surface of the agar, placed in sterile, physiological salt solution and the organisms killed by heating on a water bath at a temperature of 60° for one-half hour. The emulsion is then roughly standardized by adding sufficient sterile, physiological salt solution to impart to the fluid the required degree of cloudiness, when compared with certain emulsions. To the suspension of dead typhoid organisms or "test fluid" a preservative, usually formalin, is added and the product is distributed in properly labeled bottles. In conducting the test, the suspected typhoid serum is placed in small tubes, each containing 1 c.c. of the suspension fluid, in such proportions that the serum is diluted 1 to 50, 1 to 100 and 1 to 200. A flocculent precipitate of the dead organisms indicates a positive reaction.

Suspension fluid for the glanders agglutination test is prepared in practically the same manner as the typhoid test fluid. The glanders organisms are grown on acid agar and the suspension fluid is usually preserved by the addition of carbolic acid. In conducting the glanders agglutination test, the suspected serum is usually placed in the following dilutions : 1 to 200, 1 to 500, 1 to 800, 1 to 1200, and 1 to 1800.

The agglutination reaction has been applied experimentally and practically, with more or less success in the diagnosis of Malta fever, Asiatic cholera, bubonic plague, pneumonia, tuberculosis and other infectious diseases.

DIVISION VI.*

MICROBIAL DISEASES OF PLANTS.

INTRODUCTION.

Although the earliest study of bacterial diseases in plants antedates the isolation of the tubercle bacterium and the cholera spirillum, this branch of bacteriology has not been marked by the progress which has characterized the investigation of animal diseases. The loss of a human life or of a valuable domestic animal has appealed to the student of disease more strongly than the blighting of a pear tree, or the wilting of a potato vine, and, quite naturally, he has directed his efforts along those lines which have offered the greater inducements, and which have demanded immediate attention.

However, with the introduction of new plants, foreign seeds, and strange nursery stock, many previously unheard-of plant diseases have made their appearance. As the farming communities have become more thickly populated, with less uncultivated land between the fields, these diseases have spread from farm to farm more rapidly than in the earlier days, and the losses from these causes have been so heavy during the past decade that the farmers, gardeners and orchardists have come to the Agricultural Experiment Stations all over the country for advice and assistance in combating their troubles. This has stimulated an increased interest in plant diseases, especially along bacteriological lines, with the result that to-day some thirty bacterial diseases of plants have been described.

It is a matter of not infrequent observation that closely related species of plants, as well as animals, exhibit a marked difference in their susceptibility to the same disease-producing agents. The Bartlett pear, for example, suffers more severely from blight than the Kieffer, and, among apples, the Toleman Sweet more than the Rome; the small-leaf, stemmy varieties of tobacco seem to be more resistant to the Granville Wilt than

* Prepared by W. G. Sackett, except a protozoal disease "Fingers and Toes" by J. L. Todd.

the large-leaf kinds. Resistance of this sort, which appears to be nothing other than a natural, inborn quality, may be designated as *natural immunity*, and it is immunity of this kind which plant breeding for disease resistance has secured. A good illustration of this is to be found in the wilt-resistant water melon of the Carolinas, which is the result of crossing a naturally susceptible watermelon with a naturally resistant citron.

Acquired immunity in the plant world is a field yet to be explored. Cases have been cited in which *active immunity* appears to have followed the disease, but these are extremely rare and the evidence is very questionable. *Passive immunity*, at the present time, is unknown.

CHAPTER I.

BLIGHTS.

STEM BLIGHT OF ALFALFA.

Pseudomonas medicaginis—Sackett.

HISTORY AND DISTRIBUTION.—The disease has been known in Colorado since 1904 and was described briefly by Paddock in 1906 and more fully by the writer in 1910. It is distributed generally over Colorado, and is reported to occur in Utah, New Mexico, Nevada, Nebraska and Kansas.

SYMPTOMS.—The disease is primarily a stem infection. In the earliest stages, the stems have a watery, semi-transparent, yellowish to olive green appearance along one side. Soon there oozes from the diseased tissue a thick, clear, viscid liquid which spreads over the surface and collects here and there in little bead-like droplets. This exudate dries in a short time with a glistening finish, and gives the stems very much the appearance of having been varnished, and where the liquid has collected in little amber-colored scales and has hardened, it looks as if the varnish had run and dried. Stems in this condition have a dry, slightly rough feel to the touch. The exudate also dries uniformly over the surface or just beneath it, and there produces a dark brown, resinous surface which blackens with age. Such stems are very brittle and easily broken, which fact makes it almost impossible to handle the crop without an immense amount of shattering. The leaves attached to the blighted stems usually show the disease, and sometimes they exhibit the infection independent of the stem. In this case, the petioles become watery and pale yellow, then droop. The malady may be confined to the petiole and base of the leaflet, or it may involve the whole of the blade. Occasionally leaves are found where the inoculation has been made, apparently, in the margin of the leaflet, and the infection has proceeded toward the middle. In such instances, the tender tissue has a watery look, as if it had been bruised.

Note.—No attempt is made in this *Division* to follow Migula's system of classification.—*Ed.*

One-year-old plants may exhibit blackened areas in the crown, and black streaks which run down into the tap root. As the plant grows older, this blackening increases until the whole crown becomes involved, and either the crown buds are destroyed or the root is no longer able to perform its functions, and the plant dies.

So far as our present observations go, the disease appears to run its course with the first cutting, and those plants which have sufficient vitality throw out a good growth for the second and third cuttings.

CAUSE OF THE DISEASE.—If a small piece of the yellowish green, watery tissue from a diseased plant, or a fragment of the dried exudate is placed in a drop of clean water on a glass slide, there will appear on all

FIG. 91.—*Pseudomonas medicaginis.* Twenty-four hour culture on nutrient agar; stained with aqueous fuchsin; ×1000. (Original.)

sides of it, after half a minute, a dense, milky cloud, which can be seen readily with the naked eye, and which slowly diffuses out into the drop. When this preparation is examined under the low power of the microscope, this milky zone easily resolves itself into swarms of motile bacteria.

The organism grows readily upon the ordinary culture media and pure cultures of the germ, inoculated into scarified stems of healthy alfalfa plants, produce the disease in seven to nine days with typical symptoms.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—Under field conditions the causal organism which, presumably, lives in the soil, enters the plants early in the growing season with soil through stems which are cracked and split by late freezing. In some instances, inoculation appears to take place by stomatal and water pore infections.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—The writer has given the name *Ps. medicaginis* to the causal organism, the characteristics of which are as follows: It is a short rod with rounded ends, about 1.2μ to 2.4μ by 0. 5μ to 0.8μ the majority being 2.1μ by 0.7μ. It is actively motile by 1 to 4 bi-polar flagella; non-spore forming and non-capsule forming. Filament formation occurs frequently. The organism stains readily with the aqueous stains, but is Gram-negative.

It produces a surface pellicle on broth. Shining, grayish white on nutrient agar, becomes fluorescent green after three days. Gelatin stab, surface growth only, and no liquefaction. Potato discolored, moderate growth, cream to light orange yellow, starch not destroyed. No growth in Cohn's solution. Good growth in Uschinsky's solution. Plain milk shows no change. Litmus milk becomes bluer after seven days, no curd and no peptonization in thirty days. No indol. No hydrogen sulphide. Ammonia produced from asparagin solution, Dunham's solution and nutrient broth, but not from nitrate broth. Nitrates not reduced. No gas and no acid from dextrose, etc. Obligative aerobe. Optimum temperature 28°; no growth at 37.5°. Thermal death-point 49.0° to 50.0°. Habitat, soil. Pathogenic for alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*).

CONTROL.—The only practical way of combating and controlling the blight is by the introduction of resistant varieties, but no entirely resistant strain has been obtained up to the present time.

As a means of control, the writer recommends that the frosted alfalfa be clipped, as soon as there is reasonable certainty that danger from late frosts is past. This will rid the plants of the diseased portions, and afford an opportunity for the early growth of a new cutting. If this is done in time, the regular number of cuttings should be secured with little or no loss in tonnage.

BACTERIOSIS OF BEANS.

Pseudomonas phaseoli—Erw. Smith.

Frequently the foliage, stems, and pods of the common beans, as well as the Lima bean are attacked by a bacterial disease.

SYMPTOMS.—The pods and leaves seem to furnish the best food supply for the microörganism, and it is here that we find the most typical lesions developing. Small, reddish spots appear which increase rapidly in size and develop into watery, amber-colored blisters, surrounded by a pink

or reddish border. These blisters are filled with myriads of bacteria, and in time, they dry down, forming a pale yellow or amber-colored crust over the affected areas. Ultimately the diseased leaves become brittle, ragged, and are worthless, while the pods curl, shrivel, and rot.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—It is believed that the disease is introduced with the seed, and when once established, is spread from plant to plant by rain, dew, and leaf-eating insects.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—*Ps. phaseoli* Smith,* is a short, motile rod with rounded ends, which produces a characteristic yellow growth on the different culture media. Gelatin slowly liquefied. Milk becomes slowly alkaline, casein is precipitated by lab ferment and partially redissolved. Very marked diastatic action on potato starch. No gas from glucose, saccharose, etc. Aerobic. Uschinsky's solution, growth feeble and retarded. Thermal death-point 49.5°.

CONTROL.—Care should be taken to select seed from healthy fields where the disease has never occurred. The disease has been partially controlled by spraying with Bordeaux mixture when the plants were 2 to 3 inches high, again ten days later, and after blossoming.

BLIGHT OF MULBERRY.

Bacterium mori—Boyer and Lambert (Smith).

HISTORY.—The disease was first studied in 1890 by Cuboni and Garbini in Italy, and later by Boyer and Lambert in France who named the causal organism *Bact. mori*, but did not describe it. In 1908, Erwin F. Smith† found a similar disease in some of the Southern States, and described the causal organism.

SYMPTOMS.—According to Erwin Smith, the blight attacks the leaves and young shoots of the mulberry, producing first water-soaked spots, which later become sunken and black; "foliage more or less distorted; shoots soon show sunken black stripes and dead terminal portions. Action of disease rather prompt." In very young shoots, wood, pith and bark are invaded by bacteria; in older shoots the germs are confined mostly to the xylem.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—The organism is a rod with rounded ends, 3.6μ by 1.2μ, motile by 1 to 2 polar flagella, attached to one end. No spores observed; pseudo-zoogloea occur. Stains readily with carbol fuchsin; Gram-negative.

On agar, spreading, smooth, dull, translucent, shiny, white; medium not stained.

* Smith, Erw.: Proc. Am. Asso. Adv. Sci., 46, 228–290, 1897.

† Erwin F. Smith: Bacterial Blight of Mulberry, Science N. S., Vol. XXXI, 803.

On potato, spreading, glistening, smooth, white to dirty white, shiny, medium grayed, slight action on starch. Gelatin stab, filiform, no liquefaction. Beef broth, pellicle, strong clouding. Milk, no coagulation, rendered alkaline, becomes clear by solution of fat and casein, litmus not reduced. No growth or scant in Cohn's solution. Uschinsky's solution, copious, pellicle, not viscid, fluid bluish-fluorescent color. No gas from dextrose, saccharose, etc. Aerobic. No indol or slight. Nitrates not reduced. Thermal death point at 5', does not grow at 37°.

Blade Blight of Oats.

Pseudomonas avenæ - Manns and *Bacillus avenæ*—Manns.

History and Distribution.—A specific bacterial disease of oats has been described by Manns* in 1909. What appears to have been a similar trouble, extending from the Atlantic coast west to Indiana, and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf States, was observed as early as 1890 by Galloway and Southworth.

Symptoms. In the early stages of the disease there is "a yellowing, beginning either as small round lesions on the blade, or as long, streak lesions extending throughout the blade or even the whole length of the culm and blades. In the advanced stages, the affected blades take on a mottled to almost red color, which has been called 'rust' and 'blight.'

Cause of the Disease. The disease is produced by the symbiotic growth of two bacteria whose activity is favored by rainy, humid, and cloudy weather. One of these organisms, *Ps. avenæ*, alone, is said to be capable of effecting the blight in a mild form, while the other, *B. avenæ*, is nonpathogenic, but a mixture of the two germs results in an aggravated attack.

Method of Infection. Infection takes place through the stomata, the organisms being spattered on the leaves from the soil by rains. Certain insects are also responsible for spreading the disease.

Control. It is believed that the control of the disease lies in the selection of resistant strains.

Pear Blight.

Bacillus amylovorus - Burrill. De Toni.

History and Distribution. As early as 1780, William Denning, a fruit grower who lived on the Hudson River, observed pear blight in the vicinity of his home. It is very probable that

* Manns, H. A., Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, Bull. 210 (Ohio Exp. Sta., 1909).

blight existed many years before this in eastern North America on some of our native wild crabs, hawthorns, and wild plums, and with the introduction of cultivated varieties, it found a new field for attack. As the farming communities became more thickly populated, and the orchards more numerous, it has spread gradually westward over the Allegheny Mountains into the Mississippi Valley, across the Great Plains, and over

FIG. 92.—Two pear twigs. The upper one affected with Fire Blight, the lower one healthy. (*After Sackett, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta.*)

the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Coast. So generally is it distributed over the United States and Canada that a blight-free orchard is, indeed, a rare sight. The disease has progressed with such severity that, to-day, commercial pear growing in Colorado has been practically abandoned, and the industry in California is being threatened with destruction. So far as our present knowledge goes, the blight is of American origin and is confined to North America.

OCCURRENCE.—While the ravages of the disease are worst upon the pear, from which fact the disease derives its name, many varieties of the apple, quince, apricot and plum, together with the mountain ash, service berry, wild crabs and several species of hawthorn, have suffered severely from the same cause, and are capable of transmitting the disease from one to the other.

SYMPTOMS.—The disease is most easily recognized during the growing season, when it attacks the blossom clusters and the tips of the growing twigs. In this form it is known as *blossom* and *twig* blight. The leaves attached to these parts usually turn brown or black, either wholly or in part, the petioles blacken, and the young twigs show a blackened, shriveled bark, having much the appearance of green brush which has been burned only partially. It is from these symptoms that we get the name *Fire Blight*, so appropriately applied to pear blight. The blackened, withered leaves cling tenaciously to their blighted twigs long after the other leaves have fallen in the fall, and in this way afford the orchardist an easy way of recognizing the blighted areas.

Frequently the disease finds its way into the larger limbs and even the trunk of the tree, where it produces *body* blight. This form is characterized in the early stages by a cracking of the bark and the oozing of a thick, dirty white or brown, sticky liquid which collects here and there in drops over the injured surface. As the disease progresses, the splitting of the bark increases and the area involved becomes rough, giving rise to a canker. This is not to be confused with sun scald, in which the bark dries down and adheres firmly to the wood beneath, and which is due to an entirely different cause.

The immature fruit manifests the blight by turning black, shriveling and taking on a dried, mummified appearance. Accompanying these changes, drops of a thick, sticky exudate usually appear on the surface.

If a cross section is made of a diseased twig or limb, one invariably finds a blackened ring in the region of the cambium layer. This phenomenon, the significance of which will be explained later, serves as a reasonably reliable means of diagnosis.

CAUSE.—A microscopic examination of either the blackened cambium or a drop of the exudate shows swarms of motile rods, *B. amylovorus*, which Burrill of the University of Illinois, as early as 1878, credited with being the cause of pear blight. By inoculating healthy trees with this gummy material, he was able later to demonstrate his point experi-

mentally, and with his work and that of a Dutch Botanist, Wakker, we have the beginning of the study of bacterial diseases of plants.

METHODS OF INFECTION.—The more careful observers believe that insects, especially bees, plant lice and twig borers are responsible for the initial infection and subsequent spread of the disease. It has been found that the bacteria find protection from the adverse conditions of winter in the margins of the old cankers next to the sound bark, and also in some of the blighted shoots and twigs.* These hold-over bacteria become active with the increased flow of sap and the higher temperature of spring, and soon spread into the adjacent healthy bark. Here they multiply so rapidly that at about the time† the trees are in blossom, they begin to ooze from the cracks in the diseased bark as drops of a thick, sticky material, dirty white or brown in color. Insects are attracted to this ooze, apparently feed upon it, smear their feet, bodies and mouth parts, and then fly away to the opening blossoms. Here they feed upon the nectar and while so doing infect the flowers. The germs increase rapidly in this sweet liquid, and each bee that visits the flower subsequently carries away millions of germs to infect other blossoms. From the flowers, the bacteria find their way into the cambium and softer tissues of the bark, where the disease is confined almost entirely. After about ten days the progress of the germs can be noted by the blackening of the flower clusters, and the wilting and blackening of the leaves of the fruit spurs. Following the collapse of the fruit spurs, the disease may move down the twig an inch or more a day, causing it to appear watery, turn black and shrivel. The blackening may be 10 to 12 inches behind the advancing infection. This may continue until the whole limb becomes involved, but as a rule it is only the smaller twigs which are the worst affected. From this it will be seen that the external blackening can not be relied upon, early in the season at least, as a guide to the exact location of the disease; however, as the season advances, the plant tissues harden, conditions for germ life become less favorable, and as a result, by the middle of summer, the active progress of the blight is checked by natural causes, and the blackening overtakes the advancing infection.

Blight which appears on the water sprouts of large limbs later can

* The writer examined a number of blighted pear twigs Apr. 14, 1911, collected from different orchards in Colorado and found *B. amylovorus* alive in 23.53 per cent. The germs occurred in the 2 cm. adjacent to the healthy part of the twigs.

† Whetzel: Bull. 272, Cornell Exp. Station, 1909.

usually be accounted for by inoculation by plant lice and the pear twig borer.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—According to Jones* *Bacillus amylovorus* possesses the following characteristics: Short motile bacillus, rounded ends, 1μ–1.8μ by 0.5μ–0.9μ; stains readily with the aqueous stains; Gram-negative. No spores observed.

Agar slant and potato, growth moderate, filiform, glistening, smooth, grayish white, semi-opaque, butyrous. Gelatin stab, growth rather slow, filiform, slight crateriform liquefaction after twenty days. Nutrient broth, moderate clouding, uniform; if left *undisturbed*, a delicate pellicle or ring may form which breaks up and sinks with the slightest jar; scant finely granular sediment after ten days. Litmus milk, light blue in four days, pinkish in six days, light blue again in twelve days, upper layer blue in eighteen days; soft gelatinous curd six to ten days, with whey on the surface. Cohn's solution, no growth. Uschinsky's solution, no growth. Nitrates not reduced. No indol. Thermal death-point 50°. Optimum temperature 23° to 25°. Slight acid production but no gas from dextrose, etc. Starch is not fermented.

CONTROL.—It is obvious that spraying is useless for a disease of this character, where the germs are located beneath the surface.

A systematic cutting out of the diseased limbs and twigs wherever and whenever they appear is the only practical method of controlling the blight. It is almost impossible to get all of the diseased material in the summer time when the heavy foliage hides it, but in the fall and winter the blighted branches can be recognized very readily by the tufts of dead leaves clinging to them. It is necessary in removing the dead wood to cut well below the discolored part, ten to fifteen inches, for the bacteria may be considerably in advance of the discolored area. Clean out all old cankers by cutting well into the healthy part and by removing the dried, diseased material. Disinfect the freshly cut surfaces of this wound as well as the exposed ends of twigs and limbs with 1–1000 solution of mercuric chlorid. All diseased wood must be collected and burned.

TOMATO BLIGHT.

Bacterium (?) *Michiganense*—Erw. Smith.†

This disease is distinct from the wilt, caused by *B. solanacearum*, in that there is not the sudden collapse of the whole plant, but rather a slow yellowing or wilting of the leaves, one at a time. The causal organism produces cavities in the pith and bark as well as in the vascular system.

* Jones, D. H.: The Bacterial Blight of Apple, Pear and Quince Trees. Bull. 176, Ontario Agr. College.

† Smith, Erw., Science, N. S., Vol. XXXI, 803, p. 794, 1910.

WALNUT BLIGHT.

Pseudomonas juglandis—Pierce.

DISTRIBUTION AND SYMPTOMS.—The English walnut of California* is subject to a blight which is so serious in the southern part of the state, that one-half of the crop is frequently lost. Pierce has shown the cause to be a microörganism, *Ps. juglandis*, which produces black, cankered spots on the young nuts, either causing them to fall prematurely, or spoiling the kernel. Similar discolorations also occur on the young, tender growth and kill back the terminal branches, which should have the crop the next year. As the wood hardens, the disease is checked, and the vitality of the tree is not affected to any extent, the crop suffering rather than the tree. Little is known of the method of infection and spread of the disease.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—According to Pierce, *Ps. juglandis* is a short rod with rounded ends, 1.0μ to 2.0μ by 0.5μ; actively motile by a single polar flagellum. It produces a bright chrome yellow growth on the ordinary culture media. Marked diastatic action on potato, distinguishing it from *Ps. stewarti*, *Ps. hyacinthi*, and *Ps. campestris* of feeble diastatic action. Liquefies gelatin. Does not produce gas in various sugar solutions. Aerobic. Distinguished from *Ps. campestris by* abundant bright yellow pigment on surface of extracts of leaves of *Juglans regia*, *Magnolia macrophylla*, *Ricinus communis* and *Ficus carcia*.

Pathogenic to nuts, leaves and tender branches of *Juglans regia*.

CONTROL.—Spraying twice with Bordeaux mixture, after first removing affected twigs, has reduced the disease 50 per cent. Trees differ greatly in their susceptibility, so that an immune variety may be found which will solve the difficulty.

* Pierce, N. B. Bot. Gaz., 31: 272–273, 1901.

CHAPTER II.

GALLS AND TUMORS.

CROWN GALL.

Bacterium tumefaciens—Erw. Smith and Townsend.

Crown gall is one of the most recent diseases to be traced to bacterial origin. Its occurrence is so common in nursery stock that in a certain western state seventy-five per cent of the young trees and shrubs condemned by nursery inspectors are condemned for crown gall, and Toumey places the annual loss to orchardists at $500,000 to $1,000,000.

FIG. 93.—Crown gall with hairy root on nursery stock. Northern Spy apple. (*After Paddock.*)

One of the remarkable things about this disease is the large number of families which are subject to the infection. This list includes apple,* peach, pear, plum, prune, apricot, cherry, grape, raspberry, blackberry, rose, English walnut, chestnut, almond, white poplar, hop, sugar beet potato, tomato, tobacco and Paris daisy.

SYMPTOMS.—The swellings or galls, small at first, usually appear

* Both hard gall and hairy root.

just below the ground line (crown), at or near the juncture of the stock and scion in grafted plants. Ordinarily, they are smooth, soft, spongy, white to flesh-colored outgrowths which increase in size, harden and become rough and warty on the surface with age. As the galls* enlarge, the function of the adjacent conducting tissue is interfered with, and the circulation is impaired, as is shown by the poor growth and dwarfed appearance of the trees. Secondary galls often appear on the smaller roots and less frequently on the structure above ground.

The disease is a communicable one and is cross inoculable on cultivated plants to an astonishing degree.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—Little is known about the natural channels of infection, but inoculation through wounds, induced by grafting and by careless cultivation, is undoubtedly responsible for many crown galls.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—According to Smith and Townsend,† *Bact. tumefaciens* is a short rod with rounded ends, motile by 1–3 polar flagella. On agar and potato, growth viscid, white. Broth, surface ring. Blues litmus milk and precipitates casein with reduction of litmus. Gelatin not liquefied. No growth in Cohn's solution. No gas formation. Aerobic. Does not grow at 37°. Best isolated from that part of the stem where the tumor joins the healthy tissue.

CONTROL.—Thorough inspection of nursery stock, and care in the cultivation of orchards not to wound the crowns are important factors.

Removing the galls results in no practical benefit.

OLIVE KNOT.

Bacterium savastanoi—Smith.‡

The olive knot has been known for many years, and is even described by the early Roman writers; its bacterial nature, however, has been recognized only since 1886. It is most prevalent in those countries which border on the Mediterranean Sea, but it also occurs in the olive growing sections of California.

* Very hairy roots often accompany these.

† Smith, Erw. F. and Townsend, C. O.: "A Plant Tumor of Bacterial Origin," Science, N. S. Vol. XXV, 643, p. 671–673, 1907. "The Etiology of Plant Tumors," Science, N. S. Vol. XXX., 763, p. 233, 1909.

† Townsend, C. O. "A Bacterial Gall of the Daisy and Its Relation to Gall Formations on Other Plants, Science, N. S. (Abstract) Vol. XXIX., p. 273: 1909.

‡ Savastano, L. Les maladies de l'olivier et la tuberculose en particulier. Comp. Rend. 103: 1144, 1116. Il baccillo della tuberculosi dell'olivo, nota suppletiva. Rend. Lincei 5: 92–94. 1889.

‡ Smith, Erw., Bull. 131, Part IV, Bur. of Plant Industry, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1908.

So far as is known, the causal organism enters the twigs and leaves of the olive through wounds, and there produces roughened, wart-like swellings. The growth of the knots usually begins in the spring, and later in the season, if the trees are badly diseased, they show scant foliage, limited growth, and occasionally dead branches, especially where the galls have entirely encircled the twigs.

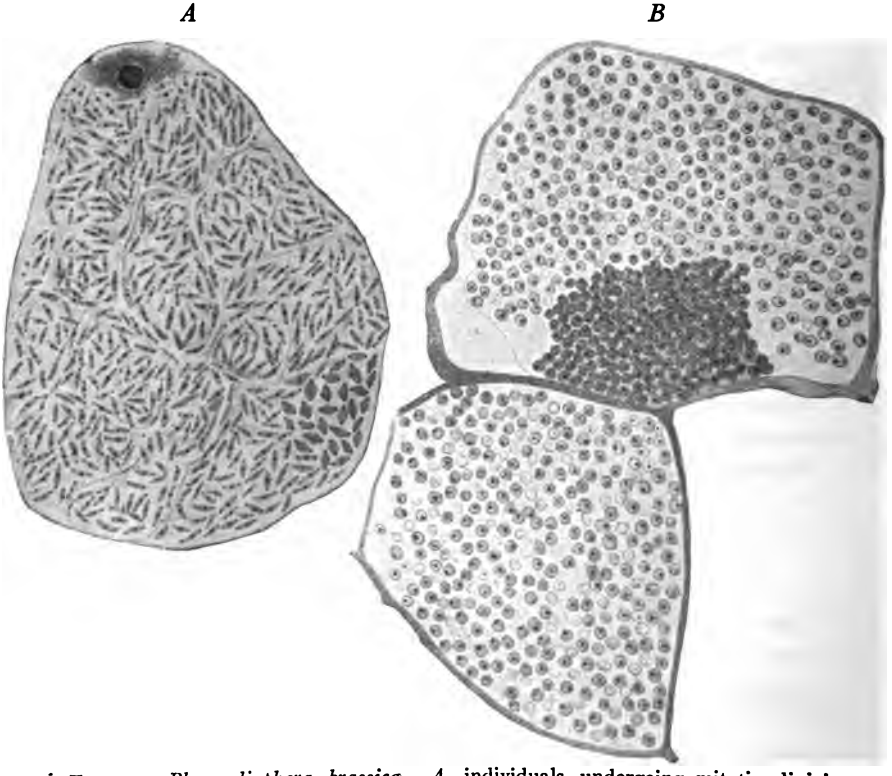


FIG. 94.—*Plasmodiophora brassicæ*. *A*, individuals undergoing mitotic division (at the top is the nucleus of the plant cell). *B*, two plant cells with developed and partly developed spores. (*After Prowazek, from Doflein.*)

"FINGERS AND TOES" OF CABBAGES.*

A species of a genus of *Rhizopoda, Plasmodiophora brassicæ*, is the cause of a common disease of the roots of cabbages and of other cruciferous

* Prepared by J. L. Todd.

plants. The disease is sometimes called "finger and toes" and it may cause much damage in market gardens. In it the roots are distorted and lumpy, like fingers bent and swollen with rheumatism. The disease can be controlled through the destruction, by burning, of all infected material.

CHAPTER III.

LEAF SPOTS.

Spot of the Larkspur.

Bacillus delphini—Erw. Smith.

So far as is known, this disease occurs only on the larkspurs of Massachusetts. Infection takes place through the stomata, resulting in numerous black spots on the leaves and stems.

Causal Organism.—Smith* describes the organism as a motile, gray-white, non-liquefying, nitrate reducing bacillus. Agar colony has characteristic wrinkled structure. Grows in Uschinsky's solution. No growth at 37°; thermal death-point 48° to 49. 1°.

Bacterial Spot of Plum and Peach.

Bacterium pruni—Erw. Smith.

The first occurrence of the bacterial spot was reported on the Japanese plum in Michigan.† Later, what appeared to be the same disease was observed on the peach in Georgia ‡ and Connecticut, and more recently it has been found throughout the South and Middle West.

Symptoms.—On the plum, the leaves and green fruit exhibit numerous small, water-soaked spots; later the diseased tissue of the leaves falls out, giving a shot-hole appearance, and the plums show black, sunken areas and deep cracks. The spots may reach a diameter of one-fourth to one-half inch.

On the peach leaves, angular, purplish-brown spots one-eighth to one-fourth inch in diameter are formed, which drop out giving the shot-hole effect. The organism also attacks the young twigs and fruit. It destroys the bark of the former, producing black, sunken areas, while on the latter it causes small purplish spots over which the skin cracks.

In both the plum and the peach, infection is believed to take place

* Smith, Erw. F., Science, N. S. Vol. XIX, No. 480, p. 418, 1904.
† Smith, Erw., Science, N. S., Vol. XVIII, 429, p. 456, 1903.
‡ Rorer, J. B., Science, N. S., Vol. XXIX, 753, p. 914, 1909.

through the stomata. It is primarily a disease of the parenchyma, but the vascular system is invaded ultimately.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—*Bacterium pruni* Smith, is a small rod, motile by one to several polar flagella. It grows readily upon the ordinary culture media. On agar, it resembles *Ps. campestris*, producing a distinctly yellow pigment, but is distinguished by its feeble growth on potato and by its growth in Uschinsky's solution, which is converted into a viscid material like egg albumin. Gelatin liquefied slowly. Casein of milk precipitated slowly and redissolved; litmus reduced but color restored later. No gas produced. Thermal death-point 51°.

LEAF SPOT OF SUGAR BEET.*

The sugar-beet leaves show dark brown, often black, irregular spots on the petiole, midrib, and larger veins. The causal organism belongs to the genus *Pseudomonas;* it has been described but not named.

* Brown, Nellie A., Science, N. S., Vol. XXIX 753, p. 915, 1909.

CHAPTER IV.

ROTS.

Black Rots of Cabbage.

Pseudomonas campestris—Pammel (Erw. Smith).

This disease is widely distributed in the United States and Europe, and has become so serious on many truck farms that gardeners dread its appearance as much as orchardists do pear blight. It is not confined to cabbage, but it attacks other cruciferous plants such as cauliflower, kohlrabi, kale, rape, turnips, mangels, rutabagas and mustards.

Symptoms.—The first symptom is the withered, yellow margin of the leaf, giving the impression of a "burned edge." The progress of the disease is inward and downward through the vascular system, as is indicated by the brown or black color of the veins and midrib. The tissue of the vascular bundles is destroyed and the cell walls of the adjacent tissue are dissolved, presumably by a cytolytic enzyme.* In this way practically all of the tissues are softened, disorganized, and a general infection of the whole plant may follow. Diseased leaves fall prematurely, leaving a long naked stalk with a tuft of leaves at the top. The dwarfed, one-sided growth of the heads, and in some cases the failure to produce heads is characteristic.

Method of Infection.—Water pore† infection along the margin of the leaf is believed to be the most common method of entrance, although root inoculation at the time of transplanting undoubtedly takes place also. It has been shown, further, that the germ is introduced on the seed.‡

Causal Organisms.§—*Pseudomonas campestris* Pammel, is a short rod with rounded ends, relatively shorter in the host tissue than on culture media, 0.7μ to 3.0μ by 0.4μ to 0.5μ; motile when young by one polar flagellum; no capsule demonstrated,

* Smith, Bul. 25, Bur. Plant Industry, U. S. Dept. Agr., 1903.

† Russell, Bul. 65, Wisconsin Exp. Station, 1808. Smith, Farmers' Bul. 63, U. S. Dept. Agriculture. 1898.

‡ Harding, Bul. 251, N. Y. Experiment Station, 1904.

§ For a means of distinguishing *Ps. campestris*, *Ps. phaseoli*, *Ps. hyacinthi* and *Ps. stewarti*, the student is referred to Bul. 28, p. 149, Div. Veg. Phys. and Path., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1901.

and no spores observed; zoogloea in liquid cultures. Stains readily with aqueous stains. Gram negative.

It grows readily in the ordinary culture media. Upon potato, growth is characteristic; at first light yellow, and in old cultures a golden brown, abundant, moist, shining, slimy. Gelatin liquefied slowly. Litmus milk becomes slightly alkaline, casein separated and gradually redissolved. On nutrient agar, translucent, yellow slime. No gas from dextrose, lactose, etc. Uschinsky's solution, growth retarded and feeble. Aerobic. Indol produced. Nitrates not reduced. Diastase produced. Optimum temperature, 25° to 30°; thermal death-point, 51.5°.

CONTROL.—The removal of diseased leaves in the early stages has been practiced by some growers with success, but care must be taken not to remove so many that growth will be checked. Manure containing diseased cabbage refuse must not be used. Seed disinfection with 1:1,000 mercuric chloride, fifteen minutes, or formalin 1:200, twenty minutes, is recommended. Rotation of crops, and planting on new land should be practiced whenever possible. If practicable, the seed bed should be made in sterilized soil, so that the plants will be healthy when set in the field.

WAKKER'S HYACINTH DISEASE.

Pseudomonas hyacinthi—Wakker.

HISTORY.—One of the earliest landmarks in the study of bacterial diseases of plants is the excellent contribution of Dr. J. H. Wakker,* a Dutch botanist, who between 1883 and 1888 published five papers on a disease of the hyacinth, caused by *Ps. hyacinthi*. Erwin F. Smith† has carried the investigation farther and has described the causal organism more fully. The disease was first observed in the Netherlands where it frequently causes serious losses in the hyacinth gardens. It is not known to occur in any other part of the world.

SYMPTOMS.—The disease is characterized by a yellow striping of the green leaves and the bright yellow slime produced in the vascular bundles of the bulb. The infection in the leaf spreads slowly to the bulb by the multiplication of bacteria in the vascular system, filling the vessels, especially those of the bulb, with a bright yellow bacterial slime. In time, the walls of the vessels are destroyed and large cavities are formed

* Wakker: Bot. Centralbl., 1883, 14, p. 315; Archives neerlandaises des sci. ex. et naturelles, Tome XXIII, pp. 18–20.

† Smith, Erwin F., "Wakker's Hyacinth Germ," Bul. No. 26, U. S. Dept. Agr., Div. Veg. Phys. and Path, 1901.

in the fibro-vascular bundles. The disease does not spread rapidly from bundle to bundle in the bulb, but is confined for a long time to the vessels first involved, a year or more being required for the destruction of the host plant. This is due, largely, to the resistance offered by the cells of the parenchyma to bacterial invasion.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—The causal organism enters through wounds in the leaves and through the blossoms, and when the disease is once established, it is probably spread by insects which visit the blossoms or eat the leaves. Daughter bulbs contract the infection from mother bulbs. Wakker believed the disease to be transmitted often by knives used around sick plants.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—*Pseudomonas hyacinthi* Wakker, according to Erwin F. Smith, is a medium-sized rod with rounded ends, 1.0μ to 2.0μ by 0.5μ to 0.7μ, motile by one polar flagellum; non-spore forming.

It grows well upon the ordinary culture media, on most of which, as well as in the host plant, it produces a bright, chrome-yellow pigment. Gelatin and blood serum are liquefied slowly (six to seven days). Milk is rendered alkaline, and the casein is slowly precipitated. On nutrient agar, growth is copious, yellow, smooth, wet-shining, translucent, spreading. On 20 per cent cane agar, the zoogloœa formed gives the growth a papillose, verrucose appearance. Acid but no gas is formed in dextrose and saccharose broth; indol produced slowly. Nitrates not reduced. Feeble growth in Uschinsky's solution. Does not grow at 37°; optimum temperature 28° to 30°; thermal death-point 47.5°.

The hyacinth is the only known host plant.

CONTROL.—Diseased bulbs should be removed from the fields and destroyed; land on which the disease is present should be used for other crops; the use of infected tools without thorough disinfection should be avoided. The selection and breeding of disease resistant varieties, as advised by Wakker, suggests the most practical way of controlling the trouble.

BASAL STEM ROT OF POTATO.

Bacillus phytophthorus—Appel.*

The disease is prevalent in the United States and Europe. The stems of the potato rot off close to the ground, and the tubers rot in the soil and later in storage.

* Appel, Otto, "Untersuchungen u. d. Swarzbeinigkeit." Arb. Bio. Abt. K. G. Amt., Berlin, 1903.

Closely related organisms are *B. solanisaprus* Harrison, and *B. atrosepticus* van Hall.

Erwin Smith describes the causal organism as a non-spore forming bacillus, motile by means of peritrichiate flagella. It stains with the ordinary stains, but is Gram-negative. The growth is grayish-white on agar and on gelatin plates large, round, white colonies develop promptly. Gelatin is liquefied with funnel-shaped liquefaction. On cooked potato, white to yellowish growth. Raw potato, white growth and black stain. There is a slow acid coagulation of milk with precipitation of casein and reduction of litmus. Thick pellicle and heavy precipitate in potato juice. No growth in Cohn's solution. Moderate production of hydrogen sulphide. Nitrates reduced. No indol. Acid from dextrose, saccharose, lactose, maltose and galactose. Some gas from inosite, lactose and mannite. Facultative anaerobe. Optimum temperature, 28° to 30°. Thermal death-point, 47°.

Soft Rot of Calla Lily.

Bacillus aroideæ—Townsend.*

A soft rot of the calla lily, distinct from other soft rots, is scattered over the calla-growing sections of the United States. The disease starts at the top of the corm and causes a rotting of the plant at or just below the surface of the ground. As a result the leaves and flower stalk turn brown and fall over. The healthy corms are white, but the infected ones are brown, soft and watery.

It is believed that the causal organism lives in the soil and enters the plants through wounds. The disease is undoubtedly spread from one locality to another by shipping slightly diseased corms.

As a means of control, only sound corms should be used, and the soil in the calla beds should be changed every three to four years.

Soft Rot of Carrot and Other Vegetables.

Bacillus carotovorus—Jones.

A number of the cultivated plants of the north temperate zone, notably those grown for their root crops, suffer, at times, from a bacterial rot caused by a liquefying bacillus. Although probably as widely distributed as any microörganism parasitic upon plants, it was not described until 1901.†

* Townsend, C. O., Bul. 60 Bur. Plant Ind., U. S. Dept. Agr., 1904.

† Jones, L. R., "A Soft Rot of Carrot and Other Vegetables," 13th Report Vermont Exp Station, p. 299, 1901.

Bacillus carotovorus is a wound parasite which invades the intercellular spaces, dissolving the middle lamellæ and portions of the inner lamellæ, thereby establishing a condition which is known as a soft rot. Jones* has shown this solution to be due to a bacterial enzyme which he has named *pectinase.*

CAUSAL OGRANISM.—The organism is a variable rod, majority 2.0μ by 0.8μ, rounded ends, motile by 2 to 10 peritrichiate flagella; no endospores; no capsules; slight pseudozoogloea. Stains readily with aqueous stains. Gram-negative.

On agar, growth abundant, filiform to spreading, glistening, smooth, white, opaque to opalescent. Potato—glistening, white, decided odor, smooth, butyrous, medium grayed. Gelatin stab—filiform, liquefaction crateriform to infundibuliform, liquefaction begins second day and complete in six days. Broth—thin pellicle, clouding, abundant, sediment. Milk—coagulated, slowly peptonized, rendered acid, litmus reduced. Cohn's solution—no growth. Uschinsky's solution—abundant growth. Quick tests; soft rot of uncooked carrots, turnips, cabbages. Slight gas produced from dextrose, lactose, saccharose but not glycerin. Acid from dextrose, lactose, saccharose and glycerin. Nitrates reduced. Slight indol. Thermal death-point, 48° to 50°; grows at 37°. Optimum temperature 25° to 30°. Pathogenic to the roots of carrot, turnip, rutabaga, radish, salsify, parsnip, bulb of onion, leaf stalk of celery, leaves and scapes of hyacinth, cabbage, cauliflower, lettuce, Irish potato, fruit of tomato, eggplant and pepper.

B. *oleraceæ* Harrison, and *B. omnivorus* van Hall, formerly described as bacterial species capable of producing soft rots, have been reported by Harding and Morse† as identical with B. *carotovorus* and therefore to be recognized no longer as distinct species.

CONTROL.—Jones believes that the soft rots can be practically held in check by rotation of crops; by not using manure into which garden refuse has been thrown; by drying the surface of the roots thoroughly and exposing them to bright sunshine before storage; by maintaining a constant low temperature (4°) during storage.

SOFT ROT OF HYACINTH.

Bacillus hyacinthi septicus—Heinz.‡

A very active soft rot of the hyacinth bulb, producing a bad smelling, slimy condition in a few days, has been described by Heinz as caused by an unpigmented, motile bacillus.

* Jones, L. R., "Pectinase, the Cytolytic Enzyme produced by *Bacillus carotovorus* and certain other soft rot organisms." Tech. Bull. 11, New York Agr. Exp. Sta., 1909.

† Harding and Morse, Tech. Bull. 11, New York Exp. Sta., 1909.

‡ Heinz, Cent. f. Bakt., 5, p. 535, 1899.

Soft Rot of Muskmelom.

Bacillus melonis—Giddings.

History.—Toward the close of the season of 1907 the muskmelons in certain sections of Vermont were attacked by a soft rot. An investigation of the cause of the touble by Giddings* showed it to be due to a microörganism which he has called *B. melonis*.

Symptoms.—The decay usually begins on that part of the melon next to the soil as shown by the shrunken but generally unbroken skin over the soft diseased area. There is a complete collapse of the melons accompanied by some frothing and a disagreeable odor in the last stages. A microscopic examination of the diseased tissue, both fresh and killed, shows that the bacterial invasion is purely intercellular, and the pathological condition of the tissue manifested as a soft rot is due to the solution of the middle lamellæ.

Infection in the field appears to take place through wounds in the skin, and especially through cracks in the skin and flesh.

Causal Organism.—According to Giddings, *Bacillus melonis* possesses the following characteristics:

A bacillus 1.0μ to 1.7μ by 0.6μ to 0.9μ actively motile by 4 to 6 peritrichiate flagella Endospores not produced. Gram-negative. Stains readily with aqueous stains.

In nutrient broth, strong clouding twenty-four hours, neither pellicle nor ring slight sediment. Agar stroke, abundant, contoured, shiny, glistening, without color, opalescent growth having umbilicate elevation. Gelatin stab, infundibuliform liquefaction in two days. Cooked potato, abundant, spreading, glistening, odor of decaying potatoes. Litmus milk, coagulated and reddened in three days, no digestion. No growth in Cohn's solution. Abundant growth in Uschinsky's solution, ring, pellicle and heavy sediment, odor of hydrogen sulphide. Vegetables rotted—muskmelon, citron, carrot, potato, beet† and turnip. Growth and some acid but no gas from lactose, etc. Slight gas production from asparagin broth, abundant in fermentation tubes of milk, this gas being 99 per cent carbon dioxide. Hydrogen sulphide from nutrient broth and potato. Nitrates reduced. Slight indol. Ammonia from asparagin broth; none from broth, gelatin, milk or urea. Thermal death-point, 49° to 50°. Optimum temperature, 30°

Control.—Spraying with Bordeaux mixture or other fungicides is recommended as a preventative measure.

The melons should be supported by some means to keep them from coming in direct contact with the soil, and should be supplied with adequate water during a dry season to keep them from cracking.

* Giddings, Bull. 148, Vermont Exp. Station, 1910.

† *B. carotovorus*, Jones, associated with several soft rots, does not rot the beet.

Soft Rot of the Sugar Beet.

Bacterium teutlium—Metcalf.

History.—A soft rot of the sugar beet, occurring in Nebraska, has been described by Metcalf and Hedgcock.*

Symptoms.—Beets affected with the rot show the lower half badly decayed and honeycombed with "pockets" or cavities filled with a slimy, stringy fluid, colorless, sour-smelling, and alive with bacteria. The vascular bundles remain intact, while the tissue surrounding them is usually consumed. Above ground the beets appear normal.

Method of Infection.—The germs gain entrance to the beet through wounds and abrasions in the skin, and there is good reason for believing that nematodes are responsible for many of the inoculations.

Causal Organism.—*Bacterium teutlium*, according to Metcalf, possesses the following characteristics:

It is a short, non-motile rod, rounded ends, 1.5μ by 0.8μ; neither capsules nor endospores have been observed; the organism stains readily with the aqueous stain. Gram-positive.

On nutrient agar, slow, scant, translucent, porcelain white, non-viscid, and penetrates the agar. On cane-sugar agar growth more rapid, viscid, watery, vitreous to translucent, colorless. Gelatin stab,—scant, filiform to beaded, dirty white, no liquefaction. Cane sugar gelatin—characteristic cumulus cloud appearance in stab, no liquefaction. Nutrient broth—slight clouding and sediment, acid produced. No evidence of growth in milk. No visible growth on potato. On carrot, clear, viscid and acid. On sugar beet, viscid, clear, spreading, copious, acid, parenchyma destroyed leaving vascular tissue. No growth in Uschinsky's, Fermi's, Pasteur's, Fraenkel's or Dunham's solution. No gas from dextrose, saccharose, etc. Facultative anaerobe. No growth at 37°. Optimum temperature, 17°. Thermal death-point, 45°.

Control.—The rot is less apt to be serious if the beets are grown on relatively dry soil and if rotation of crops is practiced. The selection of resistant varieties seems to be the most practical solution of the problem.

* Metcalf and Hedgcock, "A Soft Rot of the Sugar Beet," 17th Annual Report, Nebraska Agr. Exp. Sta., p. 69–112, 1904.

CHAPTER V.

WILTS.

WILT OF CUCURBITS.

Bacillus tracheiphilus—Erw. Smith.

HISTORY AND DISTRIBUTION.—The bacterial wilt of the muskmelon, cucumber, squash and pumpkin was first reported by Erwin Smith* in 1893. It is widely distributed over the United States east of the Rocky Mountains and seems to have different host preferences in different localities.

SYMPTOMS.—The disease is characterized by a wilting of the vine, pure and simple, without any visible external cause such as mildew, rust or leaf spot. The leaves and runners wilt suddenly as if from lack of water or too hot sun, the runner becoming prostrate on the ground. From two to three days usually elapse before the wilting of the whole vine is complete, and it may remain in this wilted condition for several days, after which the leaves begin to dry up, but retain their green color for considerable time. One runner may die at a time, beginning at the tip and working back toward the root, after which a general infection is to be expected. If inoculation takes place upon the main stem, several or all of the runners may show the wilt at the same time.

The disease is caused by a bacillus whose growth fills the water ducts or tracheæ with a white, viscid material which prevents the rise of water, and wilting follows. If the severed ends of a diseased vine are rubbed together gently and separated slowly, this sticky liquid will string out in fine threads two to three centimeters in length.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—Under field conditions, the disease is spread principally by insects, especially the striped cucumber beetle and the common squash bug.

* Erwin Smith, Cent. f. Bakt., Bd. I, II., Abt., pp. 364–373, 1895.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—Erwin F. Smith describes *Bacillus tracheiphilus* as a rod 1.2μ to 2.5μ by 0.5μ to 0.7μ, actively motile when young.

Growth occurs on the ordinary media. Upon agar, the growth is milk-white and extremely viscid. Upon potato, a gray film is produced, much like that of *B. typhosus;* the potato is unchanged. Gelatin is liquefied and no change occurs in milk. Acid but no gas is produced in saccharose and dextrose broths. The organism is aerobic and possibly facultatively anaerobic. Optimum temperature is between 20° and 30°. No growth at 37°. Thermal death-point, 43°.

CONTROL.—The same precautions and preventative measures are to be recommended for the wilt of cucurbits as are given for tomato blight.

LEAF DISEASE OF NASTURTIUM.*

A wilted, discolored condition of nasturtium leaves has been shown to be due to a microörganism of the genus *Bacterium*, described but not named.

WILT OF SWEET CORN.

Pseudomonas stewarti—Smith.

The early varieties of sweet corn grown in the truck gardens of Long Island† are subject to a bacterial disease which manifests itself by a wilting and drying up of the leaves. It also occurs in Iowa, and it has been reported from certain parts of New Jersey.

The wilting may occur at any stage of growth, but the plants seem to be more susceptible at the time of flowering. As a rule the leaves succumb one at a time, although on the younger plants they may all wilt simultaneously. There is no external evidence which would indicate the cause of the trouble, but if a diseased stalk is cut lengthwise, the fibro-vascular bundles appear as yellow strands in the white pith. A crosssection of such a stalk will show drops of a yellow viscid substance, composed largely of bacteria, exuding from the cut ends of the bundles. The infection is not confined to the stalks but can be found in the vascular system of the leaves, husks and cobs as well. The vessels are the principal structures invaded, but in time small cavities filled with the bright yellow slime are formed in the surrounding parenchyma.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—The germ may enter its host through either the roots, stomata or water pores and when once inside the vascular

* Jamieson, Clara O., Science, N. S., Vol. XXIX, 753, p. 915, 1909.

† Stewart, F. C., "A Bacterial Disease of Sweet Corn," Bull. 130, N. Y. Agr. Exp. Sta. 1897.

system, it multiplies very rapidly and fills the water tubes with a yellow slime and wilting follows.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—The organism was first described by Stewart and later named *Pseudomonas stewarti* by Erwin Smith.

It is a short, relatively thick, motile rod with rounded ends; occurs usually in pairs. No endospores observed. Stains readily with the aqueous stains.

It grows well upon the ordinary culture media. On agar, smooth, shining, yellowish-white to deep yellow, lobate. On potato, spreading, deep yellow becoming slightly iridescent, smooth; potato is browned. Broth—thin film, slight clouding and slight flocculent white precipitate. Milk—slight peptonization without coagulation; litmus reduced. No gas is produced from dextrose, etc. Good growth in Uschinsky's solution. Facultative anaerobe. Pathogenic for sweet corn.

CONTROL.—It is believed that the germ is disseminated on diseased seed and therefore disinfection of the seed before planting is recommended.

The disease is also spread by the use of manure which contains diseased stalks.

Varieties differ considerably in their susceptibility, and by the selection of the more resistant kinds some relief can be secured.

Rotation of crops and planting on new land, when available, should be practised.

Field corn and pop-corn are not affected by the wilt.

WILT OF TOMATO, EGGPLANT, IRISH POTATO AND TOBACCO.

Bacillus solanacearum—Erwin Smith.

HISTORY.—A bacterial wilt affecting a number of plants of the potato family has been described by Erwin Smith.† The disease was first observed in the Atlantic coast and southern states. In 1903 Stevens* and Sackett described a wilt of tobacco in Granville County, N. C. and this, too, Smith† has shown to be due to the tomato wilt organism, *B. solanacearum.*

SYMPTOMS.—The disease usually manifests itself by a sudden wilting of the foliage, and, as a rule, with little or no yellowing. This may be indicated at first by the collapse of a single leaf, but in time the whole plant will succumb. Following the wilting, the parts affected shrivel,

* Stevens and Sackett, "Granville Tobacco Wilt," Bull. 188 N. Car. Exp. Sta., 1903.

† Smith, Erwin F., "A Bacterial Disease of the Tomato, Eggplant and Irish Potato," Bull. 12, U. S. Dept. Agr., Div. Veg. Phys. and Path., 1896. "Granville Tobacco Wilt," Bull. 141, U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. Plant Industry, 1908.

turn yellow, then brown, and finally black. If a diseased stem is split lengthwise, black streaks, following the fibro-vascular bundles, can be traced the whole length of the stem and often out into the corresponding leaves. The vessels are packed with bacteria which ooze out on the cut surface as little drops of a dirty white, slightly viscid liquid. The bacillus destroys the parenchyma of the pith and bark and mechanically plugs the water tubes so that the water supply from the soil is shut off and wilting follows. In the tubers of the potato, the rot begins in the blackened vascular ring and spreads in all directions, producing well defined cavities next to the ring.

METHOD OF INFECTION.—Insect enemies are largely responsible for the spread of the wilt, especially above ground, while beneath the surface inoculated soil enters the roots through wounds made either by transplanting, cultivating, or nematodes.

CAUSAL ORGANISM.—According to Smith, *Bacillus solanacearum* is a medium-sized rod, rounded ends; 1.5μ by 0.5μ; motile by several peritrichiate flagella, zoogloea formed in liquid media; stains readily with aqueous stains.

Zoogloea produced at the surface in beef broth, copious dirty white sediment, reaction made alkaline. Casein of milk dissolved without precipitation and medium becomes alkaline. On nutrient agar, growth is smooth, wet shining, slightly viscid, at first dirty white becoming yellowish, then brown; agar browned. Gelatin stab—growth best at surface, pure white, smooth, wet shining, no liquefaction or very feeble after six weeks. Potato—wet shining, not wrinkled, copious, dirty white and later brown to black; medium browned. Neither acid not gas produced in any of the culture media or from glucose, etc. Obligate aerobe; ammonia produced in nutrient broth and potato tubes; pigment formation aided by glucose, fructose and saccharose. Grows well at 37°. Thermal death-point, 52°.

PATHOGENESIS.—Pathogenic for tomato, potato, eggplant, tobacco, Jamestown weed, black nightshade, physilis and petunia.

CONTROL.—If the disease is not too general, it is possible to control its spread by removing the dead plants and burning them; the early and complete destruction of all insect pests is important; if available and practical, new land or land which has not been planted to any of the potato family for a period of years, should be used; only those seeds and tubers which have come from plants grown in localities free from the disease should be planted; the use of infected manure or soil should be avoided.

Additional Bacterial Diseases.

Angular Leaf Spot of Cotton, *Bacterium malvacearum* Smith.*
Gum Disease of Sugar Cane, *Bacillus vascularum* Cobb,† Smith.‡
Leaf Spot of Broom Corn, Burrill.§
Bud Rot of Cocoanut Palm, Smith, Erw.||

* Smith, Erw., Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases, I, p. 95, 126.
† Cobb, N. A., Rept. New So. Wales Dept. Agr., 1893, pp. 1–21.
‡ Smith, Erw., Cent. f. Bakt., II Abt., Bd. XIII, 22–23, pp. 726–729, 1904.
§ Burrill, Bull. 6, Ill. Exp. Sta., pp. 165–176, 1889. Smith and Hedges, Science, N. S. Vol. XXI, 535, p. 502, 1905.
|| Smith, Erw., Science, N. S., Vol. XXI, 535, p. 500, 1905.

DIVISION VII.

MICROBIOLOGY OF THE DISEASES OF MAN AND ANIMALS.

CHAPTER I.*

METHODS AND CHANNELS OF INFECTION.

INFECTION DEFINED.

Infection of man or animals implies the entrance of pathogenic organisms, their multiplication and their capacity to do injury. In mosinstances the organisms enter the tissues of the body, although this it not true in every case. It is possible to produce the symptoms of infecs tion by the use of the chemical products elaborated by pathogenic organisms when these products are injected into the body. As an example may be mentioned the injection into the body of the chemical products of *B. tetani;* there results therefrom the typical symptoms of tetanus. However, these products no not occur naturally without the pathogenic organisms, and therefore they do not produce infections in the usual sense.

The disease producing microörganisms with which we shall especially concern ourselves in the following discussion are of three kinds: first, bacteria; second, protozoa, and third, ultramicroscopic microörganisms.

It is essential to have clearly in mind what is meant by an infectious disease and a contagious disease before entering into any detailed discussion. An *infectious disease* is any disease which is due to a microörganism. The name is applied to the nature of the cause of the disease. A *contagious disease* is an infectious disease which is transmitted from one individual to another by direct contact or by the agency of fomities. It has to do with the method of transmission rather than the cause of the disease.

* Prepared by E. F. McCampbell.

MICROÖRGANISM OF DISEASE CONSIDERED AND CLASSIFIED.

PATHOGENIC BACTERIA.—Bacteria which produce diseases are known as *pathogenic bacteria*. Of the many thousand species of bacteria only a comparatively few species have anything to do with the pathogenic processes in the plant or animal body. Some of these pathogenic bacteria can grow only in the animal or plant body, and do not exist outside of it; for this reason they are known as *obligate parasites*. There are still others which produce disease in the animal body which can grow and reproduce outside. They are known as *facultative saprophytes*. There are still other bacteria which ordinarily live outside the animal and plant body and exist largely upon dead organic material. These are known to occasionally produce pathogenic processes in the body. They are called *facultative parasites*. As examples of obligate parasites we might mention the spirillum of relapsing fever. As an example of facultative saprophytes may be mentioned *B. typhosus*, of typhoid fever. As examples of facultative parasites may be mentioned *B. tetani* of tetanus, and *B. aerogenous capsulatus*.

PATHOGENIC PROTOZOA.—There are several infectious diseases in man and animals which are caused by pathogenic protozoa. Among the common ones may be mentioned malaria, amœbic dysentery, Texas fever, infectious jaundice of dogs, and the various trypanosome diseases, such as sleeping sickness, nagana, dourine, mal de caderas. With a few exceptions it is impossible to cultivate artificially these protozoa outside the animal body. The *Trypanosoma brucei*, of nagana, has been cultivated as well as the *Trypanosoma lewisi* of the rat. The *Amœba coli* of dysentery has also been cultivated, and it is stated that under certain conditions *Babesia bigemina* of Texas fever may be artificially grown.

ULTRAMICROSCOPIC MICROÖRGANISMS OR VIRUSES.—There are some infectious diseases the causes of which have never been discovered. The infectious agents cannot be cultivated and cannot be stained by the ordinary bacteriological methods (p. 64). There are several infectious diseases of unknown cause, the viruses of which do not act in accordance with the tests of ultramicroscopic or filterable viruses, for example smallpox, cowpox and vaccinia, typhus fever and Rocky Mountain spotted fever. There are still other diseases of unknown cause about which nothing is known regarding the filterability of the etiological agents of the disease. Scarlet fever, chickenpox and measles belong

to this class. These diseases cannot be inoculated readily into animals and consequently the virus cannot be secured in sufficient quantities for study. It should be borne in mind that a possible explanation of some of these diseases of unknown cause may be found in the proposition that two microörganisms may each produce non-toxic substances and that when these non-toxic substances come together, a toxic substance may be produced. This condition of affairs may explain certain infectious diseases in which microörganisms are known to occur, and in which they cannot be connected with the disease as causative factors. It may be mentioned in this connection that *Strept. pyogenes* very frequently occurs in both scarlet fever and smallpox. It has been shown that this organism is not the cause of these diseases, but there is a remote possibility that it may act in the so-called symbiotic relation with some other microörganisms, as mentioned above, and produce the typical symptoms of these diseases. The symbiotic relationship of infectious organisms is probably not the logical explanation for infections of this character. The view is held by some that some of the infectious diseases of unknown etiology are due to enzymes and that a so-called autocatalysis explains the seeming reproduction in the body of the viruses. This theory is, however, without substantial proof.

The Distribution of Pathogenic Microbic Agents in Nature.

The causal microörganisms of most of our infectious diseases are found principally in the bodies of diseased man and animals. There are some exceptions to their being found only in the bodies of the diseased. Notable examples are found among certain of the wild animals such as the brush-buck, wildebeest and others which serve as reservoirs for the microörganisms of some of the most fatal of protozoal diseases. These animals seem to be naturally immune. Various insects which are factors in the transmission of certain infectious diseases do not suffer from these diseases in any form and are naturally immune. The most common source, however, is the diseased animal or human body. The natural habitat of the *Bact. diphtheriæ* is in the throat and nasal passages of persons suffering from diphtheria or are convalescent from diphtheria. Occasionally these bacteria are also found in the nasal passages and throats of persons who have never had diphtheria. The *B. typhosus*, of typhoid fever, also, has its natural abode in the in-

testinal tract of persons suffering from or convalescent from the fever. The same is true with the majority of the causal microörganisms. There are some microbic agents, however, which exist in the soil but probably do not undergo multiplication such as the *B. tetani*, of tetanus or lockjaw, *Bact. welchii*, of emphysematous or gaseous gangrene, and the *B. botulinus*, of meat poisoning. These bacteria sometimes exist in the intestinal tracts of animals such as the horse and in all probability their occurrence in the soil is due to their deposition in manure.

The Occurrence of Pathogenic Microbic Agents upon and in the Bodies of Healthy Animals and Man.

The exposure to the air of the external surfaces of the body makes it especially easy for microörganisms to collect upon them. The large percentage of the microörganisms which collect on the external surfaces are non-pathogenic but there are frequently disease-producing ones among them. The various varieties of the *M. pyogenes* are almost universally present on the skin and also on the exposed mucous membranes. *Strept. pyogenes*, *Bact. influenzæ*, *Bact. tuberculosis*, *M. intracellularis var. meningitidis*, *Strept. pneumoniæ*, *Bact. diphtheriæ* and many other species may be present. The mouth and nose are excellent places for microörganisms to collect and excellent for their growth as the requisite conditions such as food, heat and moisture are present. It has been stated on competent authority that all the species of bacteria which have been described as occurring in various parts of the body have also been found in the mouth. These bacteria do not necessarily produce disease or injure the body unless the vitality is lowered and they enter into the tissues. They feed upon the desquamating cells and the excretions. It is exceedingly interesting to note that *Bact. tuberculosis* and *Bact. diphtheriæ*, as before stated, have been found in the nose of persons who have never had these diseases. These bacteria have also been shown to be virulent and such persons are somewhat dangerous to other more susceptible persons. It is also frequently noted that pathogens are found in the bodies of persons after they have recovered from the disease and that these individuals disseminate the microörganisms and infect non-immune individuals. This may be the case in typhoid fever, Asiatic cholera and dysentery.

In regard to the occurrence of microbic agents in the internal organs

of the body the following may be said. For a long time it was claimed that the internal organs of man and animals were sterile. Neisser is authority for the statement that the internal organs of healthy animals are sterile. This, however, has been shown not to be the case universally. *Bact. tuberculosis* has been found in normal human and bovine lymph glands. The various pus-producing micrococci have been frequently found in the spleen, kidney, and liver. Perhaps the commonest group of bacteria to be isolated from the internal organs are the intestinal forms. Peristaltic action and the diffusion of food through the intestinal wall may be influencing factors. The fact that the internal organs are not sterile in every case is important as it may account for the so-called autogenic infections.

The Manner in Which Infectious Agents Enter the Body and Their Source.

Air-borne Infections.—The causal microörganisms of infectious diseases are frequently excreted from the body of the diseased individual and are deposited on the clothing, furnishings, on the floors and walls, or on the ground. These microörganisms probably do not proliferate except in rare instances, but frequently remain virulent and capable of being carried through the air and producing disease in others individuals. It is generally believed that in diseases such as smallpox, measles, scarlet fever and the other acute exanthematous diseases, together with such diseases as bubonic plague and diphtheria, the infectious agents may be carried through the air after having been deposited on clothing and furnishings, but this view is not held by some specialists.

It has been supposed that the only way that bacteria could be carried in the air was after having been dried on particles of dust and carried by currents of air. This, however, has been shown not always to be the case and we now know that infectious microörganisms may be carried on small particles or droplets of sputum or moisture. These two types of aerial infection are known respectively as dust and droplet infection. They will be given a brief consideration.

Dust Infection.—Infectious microörganisms to remain virulent and be able to produce infection must successfully resist drying after being affixed to particles of dust. After being dried the particles are frequently moved and whirled about by air currents. The larger particles

of material quickly settle down, but the small, almost invisible pieces of dried material may remain suspended for three or four hours. It is these small particles which are usually inhaled or deposited on the skin and mucous membranes of normal individuals that produce infections. *Bact. tuberculosis* may be carried in this way as well as many other pathogens. The extent of such dissemination is not well established.

Droplet Infection.—It has been demonstrated that during the process of talking, coughing and sneezing, small bubbles or droplets of sputum are thrown out into the air. These particles remain suspended for some time and may be inhaled or deposited elsewhere. It is surprising the distance that these small particles may be carried. It is stated that they may be thrown out twelve or more meters. It has been shown that *Bact. tuberculosis* is rarely thrown out over one and a half meters by the cough of the tuberculous individual. It should be remembered that these bacteria will remain alive two to three weeks when in the dark but that they live only a few hours when exposed to the light. Of the pathogenic microörganisms and viruses which are disseminated by droplets of moisture, may be mentioned those of whooping cough, mumps, measles, influenza, epidemic meningitis and pneumonia.

Air-borne infections rarely occur and are not of great importance in the open air where light has free access, but this type of infection occurs in crowded quarters such as dark shops, schools, tenements and railway trains.

WATER-BORNE INFECTIONS.—Pure infections of this type occur in practically only four diseases, namely Asiatic cholera, typhoid fever, and in dysentery of the amœbic and bacillary forms. The drinking of water or of fluids or materials contaminated by water is only one of the ways in which these diseases are acquired.

INFECTIONS FROM SOIL.—The soil as a source of infectious micro-organisms is of prime importance in only a few diseases, namely, anthrax, tetanus, symptomatic anthrax, malignant œdema, emphysematous gangrene, Asiatic cholera, and typhoid fever. In the first five mentioned infection always takes place through some wound usually in the skin and in the last two diseases mentioned infection is usually through the intestinal tract but may also occur by means of wounds. The micro-organisms of anthrax, tetanus and emphysematous gangrene, or more specifically the spores, will remain in soil for long periods of time. They are sometimes found in the active vegetative stage but it is probable that

they do not multiply in the soil. They may exist as ordinary saprophytes. The microörganisms of typhoid and cholera have been known to remain alive for a year or more in soils containing large quantities of organic matter. The various pyogenic micrococci are also occasionally found in the soil and may enter the body of man and animals through wounds. These last-mentioned organisms may live for indefinite periods of time on the skin and only enter the body when the resistance of some tissue is lowered.

INFECTIONS FROM FOOD.—Quite a large variety of pathogenic microorganisms have been found in the various food products. Milk is perhaps the most common food product to be infected. The causal agents of diphtheria, scarlet fever and some other diseases are disseminated by means of milk. Milk having been contaminated by water containing *B. typhosus* may be the means of conveying typhoid fever, and the dissemination of Malta fever is accomplished by the drinking of the milk of infected goats. Typhoid fever has also been known to have been acquired from the eating of vegetables which have been washed in water containing the pathogens. Oysters and various shell-fish have carried the causal microbic agents of typhoid and Asiatic cholera. Three infections coming from meat sometimes occur, namely, botulism, enteritidis infections and para-typhoid fever. In these instances the causal microörganisms are in the meat. Another type of meat poisoning also occurs from the eating of meat or fish which has been acted upon by saprophytic bacteria and the proteins split up into toxic substances.

ANIMAL CARRIERS OF INFECTION.—Animals may communicate pathogenic microörganisms to one another and to man in three ways, namely, first, by direct or indirect contact; second, by serving as mechanical carriers from one individual to another; and third, by serving as intermediate hosts for the pathogen. As an example of the first may be mentioned the fact that tuberculosis has been communicated from cattle to man, that glanders has been communicated from horses to man and that anthrax has been communicated from sheep to man by contact. The cat, while not suffering from true diphtheria, seems to be able to transmit this infection to the human. Under the second, the mechanical carrying of an infection, the insects are principally concerned. It is demonstrated that common flies frequently carry *B. typhosus* on their feet from the infected patient or the excreta and deposit them on the food materials thus causing infection when the food is eaten. The

various suctorial insects also may suck up the blood of one individual and carry the infectious agent to the normal individual. Notable examples of this are found in the transmission of the various trypanosomiases by the tsetse and other tropical flies, of Rocky Mountain spotted fever by the wood tick. The same is true of *Bact. pestis*, of plague, which is carried by the flea, of Texas fever by the cattle tick, and it has been shown recently that the louse may be one of the agents in the transmission of typhus fever. Under the third, the serving as an intermediate host and the carrying of the causal agent, may be mentioned the mosquitoes which serve as the only means of transmission of the causal microörganisms of malaria and yellow fever and in which these parasites pass a certain cycle of their existence.

HUMAN CARRIERS OF INFECTION.—It has been previously mentioned that man is capable of carrying infectious agents when he himself is not infected. For example, in the case of diphtheria it has been repeatedly shown that convalescents from diphtheria, persons who have had the disease, and persons, who have never had the disease, frequently carry the causal microörganisms of this disease in a virulent form and are accordingly disseminators. Not uncommonly persons who have had typhoid fever carry large numbers of virulent *B. typhosus* in their bodies, particularly in the gall bladder, and disseminate them thus causing many infections. They may be carried for many years, one case of eighteen years being on record. Possibly Asiatic cholera is also occasionally carried for a period of time. Individuals who carry infectious organisms are popularly known as "germ-carriers" and should be kept under constant observation.

CONTACT INFECTION.—It is only necessary to emphasize certain points in addition to what has been said in the foregoing. It has been stated that animals may communicate an infectious agent to other animals of the same or different susceptible species by direct contact. Probably the commonest diseases to be communicated by animals to each other are tuberculosis and glanders. This is commonly accomplished by the rubbing of the mouths and noses together, although the disease may be acquired in other ways. Among the human race the diseases usually communicated by the contact of one individual with another are diphtheria, scarlet fever, smallpox, mumps, measles, gonorrhœa, chancroid and syphilis. In these five first-mentioned diseases it seems that the expirations carry the causal microörganism and that it is

inhaled into the nose or throat. Some of these diseases may sometimes be transmitted by intermediate agents, clothing, etc. (fomites). In the last three diseases, which are known as the venereal diseases, an abrasion of the integument is a prerequisite and the infectious agent must enter therein. This is usually brought about by absolute contact of one individual with another. In leprosy also almost direct contact is necessary for a transfer of the infectious agent.

The Routes by Which Infectious Microörganisms Enter the Body.

Microörganisms enter the body through either the external or internal surfaces. It has been shown that healthy and intact skin furnishes an efficient barrier to the entrance of infectious agents. Pathogenic bacteria, for example the streptococcus and the various varieties of the staphylococci, are present on the skin almost continuously, yet do not often produce infections. When there is an abrasion of the skin or a diseased duct or hair follicle the bacteria frequently pass down and an infection results. Then again, when the above-mentioned pyogenic microörganisms are vigorously rubbed into the skin, infection sometimes takes place, but in this instance there has been some mechanical injury to the skin. Minute and unobserved abrasions of the skin also serve as points of entrance for the *Bact. pestis* of the plague. The microörganisms of tetanus, anthrax, symptomatic anthrax and malignant œdema may enter the skin through wounds. Sometimes the infectious agents remain local and at other times are carried from the point of the original entrance and this may take place in different lengths of time. For example, in tetanus the bacteria remain localized at the point of the original wound and disseminate their toxin from this point. In the various pyogenic infections the bacteria usually remain localized. However, in anthrax the bacteria are carried into the circulation in a very few minutes after they enter the wound. In the new-born, infection very frequently enters the body through the umbilicus or navel. Tetanus is one of the common diseases acquired in this way. Microörganisms may also enter the skin through the wounds made by insects such as mosquitoes, ticks and fleas. The clearer cut the wound the less the danger of infection because of the mechanical and bactericidal barrier and action of the fibrin and blood serum. A free flow of blood also

washes the microörganisms out of the wound. Contused wounds are especially dangerous inasmuch as there is not a free flow of blood and also there is a good chance for the growth of anaerobic bacteria such as those of tetanus, malignant œdema, symptomatic anthrax and emphysematous gangrene.

The mucous membranes of the nose, throat and mouth are quite resistant to infection. The epithelial coat, the mechanical action of the mucus and saliva, and possibly the slight bactericidal action of the saliva are the barriers. Infections of the thin non-resistant membrane of the new-born do occur and necrosis sometimes results (noma). The mucous membrane of the mouth and throat is frequently the seat of primary infection when it is injured. The actinomycotic fungus usually enters a lesion in the mucous membrane made by straws. The ducts of the salivary glands also serve as points of entrance for certain infectious agents. The tonsils are very commonly the seat of infections especially with the *Strept. pyogenes* and *Strept. pneumoniæ*. Septicæmias, for example those occurring in diphtheria, and especially in scarlet fever, arise from infection of the tonsils with *Strept. pyogenes*. These structures are also the primary point of invasion in cases of acute rheumatism. The nasal mucous membrane is more permeable to infectious agents than that of the oral cavity. The microörganisms of acute epidemic meningitis, measles, leprosy and glanders most frequently enter the body through lesions in the membranes of the nose. Infection may be carried into the nose directly or pass from the conjunctiva through the naso-lachrymal duct.

The flora found in the eye is quite extensive. The conjunctiva is not infrequently the seat of primary infections. The pyogenic cocci and the *M. gonorrhœæ* are among the common infecting agents. It is possible that certain points of infection are provided by the conjunctiva being injured by dust particles. The tears are not markedly bactericidal and only serve to wash the eye mechanically. Infections of the conjunctiva are frequently very severe. There is no doubt also that other pathogens are caught in the eye and washed into the nose where they set up infections or are carried through the membranes to set up infections elsewhere. *M. intracellularis var. meningitidis*, of epidemic meningitis, is known to pass in this way and possibly *Bact. pestis*, of the plague.

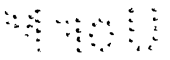
Infectious microörganisms after being taken into the body through

the nose or the mouth may either pass to the lungs through the trachea or down the œsophagus to the stomach and intestines. During the ordinary inspiratory part of a respiration it is probable that microörganisms cannot pass directly into the alveoli of the lung, as the tortuous passage, the mucous and cilia are fairly efficient barriers. Bacteria may be inhaled directly into the finer bronchi and the alveoli during forced inspiration such as that attendant upon hiccoughing and sneezing. Infections of this kind occur in pneumonia and influenza. Microörganisms lodge on the membrane of the trachea and are carried to the lungs and occasionally to other parts of the body by the blood and lymph. It is probable that such a form of infection occurs sometimes in pneumonia, tuberculosis and the plague.

Infectious microörganisms very frequently pass down to the stomach and intestines. The mucous membrane of the stomach is normally very resistant to infection due to the hydrochloric acid which is present in the gastric juice and which in normal amount is distinctly antiseptic. In instances where the acidity of the stomach is lowered microörganisms will develop more readily. Toxins with the exception of that of *B. botulinus*, of meat poisoning, are destroyed by the gastric juice. The intestines are less resistant to infection. It is here that the causal microörganisms of typhoid fever, Asiatic cholera, chicken cholera and dysentery and the various hemorrhagic septicæmias find their particular affinities. These bacteria enter or attach themselves to the intestinal wall and, in the case of cholera and dysentery, this is the only point of infection. The *B. typhosus* has occasionally been known to enter at other places. This bacterium, however, commonly localizes in the lymphatic patches (Peyers) of the intestine. Some bacteria can pass through the wall of the intestine when it is seemingly intact. This point has been repeatedly demonstrated in the case of *Bact. tuberculosis*.

The genital organs of the male and female are susceptible to infection with microörganisms in certain instances. The *M. gonorrhœæ*, of gonorrhœa, and the *Treponema pallidum*, of syphilis, find their usual portals of entry in the genital tract. They have, however, been known to infect other parts of the body as the mouth, skin and the conjunctiva. Other bacteria, as for example, the *Strept. pyogenes*, *M. pyogenes var. aureus* and *B. coli* are sometimes found infecting the genital tract in cases of chronic urethritis.

The kidneys, ureters and bladder are sometimes infected but usually



the infecting agent is carried in the circulation to the kidney although it occasionally ascends through the urethra from without.

In conclusion, the proposition of germinal and antenatal infection must be mentioned. By true germinal infection is meant the carrying of the infectious microörganisms of a disease by the ovum or the spermatozoon and its incorporation in the development of the embryo and fœtus. It is doubtful if this ever occurs. Some authorities claim that it is possible and that it has been demonstrated that the spermatozoa may carry the *Treponema pallidum*, of syphilis, but this is not generally accepted. Antenatal infection or infection of the fœtus before birth does occur. Infectious microörganisms enter the fœtus only from the mother and it has been repeatedly shown that tuberculosis and syphilis may be acquired in this way. It is essential, however, that the mother be infected and, in most instances, this infection is localized in the placenta. Smallpox, scarlet fever, measles, dysentery, various pyogenic infections and in rare instances pneumonia have been acquired by placental infection. In rare cases in animals, anthrax, symptomatic anthrax, chicken cholera, and glanders have been acquired by antenatal infection from the mother. The extent of such transmission cannot be easily determined on account of the close relationship of the mother and the possibility of other means of transmission occurring.

Variation in Infection.

There may be a variation in the infection depending upon the route by which the infectious microörganism enters the body. For example, in the case of *Bact. tuberculosis*, if the bacterium enters the skin, a non-fatal infection, called lupus, results; if it enters the lymph glands or joints and localizes there an inflammation of not necessarily a fatal character results; if it enters the lungs, pulmonary tuberculosis or consumption which usually, after being well established, runs a fatal course; if it enters the intestine, intestinal tuberculosis may result, which is nearly always fatal, and if it enters the meninges, tubercular meningitis results which is rapidly fatal. Just so with the *Strept. pyogenes*, depending on whether it enters the circulation, the lymphatic vessels of the skin, or the connective tissues, there results septicæmia, erysipelas, or abscesses, which obviously differ in their severity. The same is true of practically all the pathogenic bacteria which invade the

plant and animal body. The variation in the route produces a great variation in the type and the results of the infection. There is some variation in what constitutes an infection, depending upon the infectious microörganism and the tissue it attacks. For example, *Msp. comma*, of Asiatic cholera, does not produce an infection unless it comes in contact with the intestinal mucosa and in this case it does not enter the tissues but sets up an inflammatory process on the surface. If this same microörganism comes in contact with tissues such as those of the nose, throat, and lungs, no infection results. In the case of *B. typhosus*, the bacillus only attacks the intestinal mucosa, but in addition it enters the tissue of the lymphatic patches and sets up an inflammation. This microörganism may invade the circulatory system directly. Again, in order for such an organism as the *Strept. pneumoniæ* to produce pneumonia it is only necessary for the bacteria to come in contact with the thin, single-celled alveolar wall through the air passages. In case this bacterium produces an abscess it is necessary for it to first enter into the tissues. In the pneumonic form of plague the *Bact. pestis* is carried to the alveolus through the circulation and thus enters the tissues of the lung before actually invading the alveoli. This sometimes occurs in case of *Strept. pneumoniæ*. It also gives rise to abscesses but only when it invades lymphatic glands. The same is true of the large number of infectious microörganisms: there is a variation in the infection due to the variation in the microbic agent and the point where this agent attacks the body. The severity of an infection, as for example, a pneumonia due to *Strept. pneumoniæ*, or to *Strept. pyogenes;* or to *Bact. pneumoniæ* (Friedlander), or to *Bact. pestis*, etc., would vary with the infectious agent, its virulence and number, and with the resistance of the individual infected.

The Factors Which Influence the Results of an Infection.

There are four principal factors which influence the results of an infection. They are as follows: the virulence of the infecting microorganism; the number of the infecting microörganisms; the avenue by which the infectious microörganism enters the body; and the resistance of the animal or individual infected.

Virulence.—It is a self-evident fact that the more virulent a microorganism is the more serious will be the infection which results from its invasion of the body. There is a great difference in the virulence. For

example, *Strept. pyogenes* may infect the skin of mucous membranes and produce only an abscess of varying proportions. Again, it may be more virulent. The resistance of the infected individual may be lowered somewhat, the organism enter the lymphatics of the skin and thus produce erysipelas, or the blood stream and produce a fatal septicæmia. Furthermore, one strain of the streptococcus in the blood may produce a very virulent infection and another a less severe one. Virulent streptococci are not phagocytized by the leucocytes. The same variation in virulence is noted in all the pathogenic bacteria and the infections are modified thereby. The fact that an organism is virulent for an animal is not evidence that it is virulent for man. The virulence of an organism depends along with other factors upon its ability to form toxins or poisonous substances.

NUMBER.—The number of infecting microörganisms which are introduced into an animal body is of importance. In anthrax, for example, it has been shown that one bacterium is capable of multiplying and setting up an infection. In tuberculosis and typhoid fever, and in most of the infectious diseases it requires a rather large number before an infection will take place. The leucocytes, bactericidal substances in the blood, and the body cells in general are capable of destroying many microörganisms. Furthermore, it can be readily understood how a few bacteria might be able to cause a mild infection and an increasing number be able to so overcome the bodily resistance as to cause a very severe infection.

AVENUE.—It has been pointed out previously how the avenue of infection modifies the infection. A very virulent microörganism may occasionally produce a very mild infection when introduced in a certain locality while in another place the same organism may produce a very severe type. The results of the infection will be materially modified, therefore, depending on the avenue of entrance which the virulent microörganism takes. For example, in addition to those mentioned previously, suppose *Bact. pestis*, the causal agent of plague, enters the blood through the skin or the lymphatics through the tonsils; it is carried to the lungs and there produces a very severe pneumonia; if the bacteria enter the lymphatic system in large numbers they frequently localize in the lymph glands producing buboes or glandular enlargements not always fatal. They may also enter the blood current and produce a rapidly fatal septicæmia. It is not established that the

disease may be induced in men by the ingestion of *Bact. pestis*, but in some susceptible animals, such as rats, it is rapidly acquired in a very fatal form when the bacteria enter the intestines.

RESISTANCE.—This factor is one of the prominent ones which modify the results of an infection. It is a familiar fact that two or more individuals may receive the same microörganism, as for example *B. typhosus*, one will not become infected or have a very mild form of the disease, while the other will have the severest and most fatal form of typhoid fever known. Again, the age of the individual infected is important in determining the resistance. The adult resists infection such as diphtheria, scarlet fever, and measles more than the child. The child resists pneumonia and tuberculosis more than the adult. The resistance depends on the presence in the animal body of natural or acquired antibodies. It is therefore obvious that the higher the resistance of the individual infected, the less severe will be the results of the infection of that individual.

THE EXACT CAUSE OF INFECTIONS.

We are familiar with the fact that all of our infectious diseases are due to microörganisms or viruses of some form or other. The causal agents of the majority of these diseases are known but in the case of those that are not known there is reasonable certainty as to the types of the infecting agents. They will be briefly considered as follows:

SOLUBLE TOXINS.—There are some pathogenic bacteria which secrete through their cell walls poisons which diffuse into the surrounding media. To these poisons or soluble toxins the disease symptoms are due. *Bact. diphtheriæ*, of diphtheria, *B. tetani*, of lock-jaw or tetanus, *Bact. dysenteriæ*, of bacillary dysentery, *B. botulinus*, of meat poisoning, and *Ps. pyocyanea*, the causal organism of blue-green pus, are the most important bacteria of this character. Some bacteria, such as *Strept. pyogenes* and *M. pyogenes var. aureus* produce hæmolytic toxins. There are certain protozoa, as, for example, the *Amœba dysenteriæ* and the various trypanosomes which may possibly secrete soluble poisons. Among the animals, the venoms of the poisonous snakes, the poison of the centipedes, and spiders, the serum of the eel and the excretion of the dermal glands of the toad are examples of secreted toxins (zoötoxins). Again, among the plants are abrin from the jequerity bean, ricin from the castor-oil bean, examples of soluble toxins the product of plant cells (phytotoxins).

The cells producing these toxic substances are only indirectly responsible for the infections and that it is the toxins themselves which produce the pathogenic effect on the body.

ENDOTOXINS.—Many of the pathogenic bacteria and some of the protozoa do not secrete their toxins outside the cell wall but hold them within the wall in combination with the protoplasm. They do not liberate these substances until the microörganisms die and are disintegrated. Such toxic substances are called *endotoxins* to distinguish them from those secreted from the cell, namely, the *soluble toxins*. Two of the best examples of pathogenic bacteria of this type are the *Msp. comma* of Asiatic cholera and *B. typhosus* of typhoid fever.

TOXIC BACTERIAL PROTEINS.—There are some bacteria and other parasitic cells which produce a small amount of endotoxin and in certain instances some soluble toxin but not enough of either of these substances to account for the toxicity of the microörganism. It has been found that, when organisms of this character are ground up and washed to free them of their endotoxin and are washed free of all soluble toxins, they are still toxic. It has been shown that this toxicity is due to the protein substances of the cell. The *Bact. tuberculosis* and the *Bact. mallei*, of glanders, are two notable examples of microörganisms of this character. When, for example, the proteins of *Bact. tuberculosis* are injected into the circulation of susceptible animals, tubercle formation occurs showing that these proteins are toxic.

In certain infectious diseases also it is claimed by certain writers that enzymes are responsible. This lacks substantiation. It is also stated that in such infections, as anthrax, the mechanical effect of the bacteria, plugging up the capillaries and producing mycotic emboli, is a factor. This may be true but in addition other factors mentioned above are concerned.

In mixed infections of two or more microörganisms, which frequently occurs, the infected individual may have within the body soluble toxins, endotoxins and toxic bacterial proteins and in such a case it is difficult to differentiate their action.

THE METHODS BY WHICH INFECTIOUS MICROÖRGANISMS ARE DISSEMINATED.

The microörganisms of some of the infectious diseases, such as diphtheria and Asiatic cholera and usually tetanus, remain local and

seldom enter the body generally. From the locus of the infection they disseminate their toxic or poisonous products. In the case of tetanus the toxin is probably carried over the body along the sheaths of the motor nerves; in diphtheria the toxin may be carried by the lymph, occasionally by the blood; in the case of cholera the blood and lymph both may serve to carry the toxic agents. In diphtheria and cholera the microörganisms very frequently extend along the mucous membranes from the original point of infection. There are other infections in which the causal microörganisms extend only from the point of original invasion into the surrounding areas. Such is the case of the *Strept. pyogenes*, of erysipelas, in the skin and of the *Bact. influenzæ* through the respiratory tract. Many of the infectious agents are carried by the blood, occasionally by the lymph, as for example in tuberculosis, syphilis, glanders, plague, leprosy, pneumonia and the septicæmias due to the pyogenic cocci. It is possible, in certain cases, that the leucocytes acting as phagocytes may carry virulent infectious agents through the blood and lymph from one part of the body to the other.

The Methods by Which Infectious Agents are Eliminated from the Body.

The causal microörganisms of the various infectious diseases may be eliminated from the body in two general ways, namely, by direct method and by an indirect method. For a microörganism to be directly eliminated from the body it is necessary for the focus of the infection to communicate with the outside of the body in some way or other. In the case of infections of the mucous membranes and the skin there is, of course, direct communication with the outside. In diseases of the respiratory organs and the intestines the infectious agents are discharged into the lumen of the air passages and the intestines and then thrown out from these passages. Examples of the direct elimination from the skin may be found in such diseases as smallpox, measles, syphilis, scarlet fever, lupus and in suppurative conditions such as carbuncles and furuncles. The significance of transmission of smallpox, measles and scarlet fever from the skin cannot be stated positively because contradictory evidence exists; of the other diseases mentioned, little can be said of a satisfactory nature. As examples of diseases where direct elimination from the various mucous membranes occurs may be mentioned infections such as typhoid fever, tuberculosis, cholera and dysentery from the membranes of the intestines;

influenza, pneumonia and tuberculosis from the bronchial membranes; diphtheria, leprosy, glanders and scarlet fever from the membranes of the nose, throat and tonsils; and gonorrhœa, syphilis and tuberculosis from the membranes of the genito-urinary tract. In elimination from the various internal membranes sometimes *re-infections* occur such as in the case of the elimination of *Bact. tuberculosis* from the respiratory tract, the swallowing of the sputum, and the subsequent infection of the intestines.

In the second, or indirect method of elimination, two distinct propositions present themselves: first, the infectious microörganism must enter the lymphatic or blood circulation and, second, in order to get out of the body they must pass through the cells of some of the organs, the mucus membranes or skin. It is a common occurrence for bacteria and other microörganisms to get into the circulation in some of the infectious diseases such as typhoid fever, pneumonia, plague and in the various septicæmias. They may pass through the epithelium of the kidney and be eliminated in the urine; they may pass through the liver and be eliminated in the bile, passing out through the intestines; they may pass through the mucous membranes of the intestine and possibly pass through the glandular epithelium of the sebaceous and sweat glands and be eliminated through the skin. They have also been known to migrate through the glandular epithelium of the milk glands when these glands are not grossly diseased and also through the salivary glands. Infectious microörganisms are sometimes destroyed by the lysins in the blood, carried to and deposited in the spleen and bone-marrow and gradually disintegrated and dissolved.

In certain infections in which a recovery seems to have occurred, all the pathogenic microörganisms have not been eliminated from the body. As mentioned previously, *B. typhosus* and *Bact. diphtheriæ* are frequently carried by persons fully recovered from these diseases. Sometimes, however, inflammatory infections are set up by these bacteria. It is suspected that frequently repeated attacks of malaria are due to the retention of some of these protozoan parasites which for a time exist in a quiescent stage. Repeated attacks of erysipelas caused by the *Strept. pyogenes* may also be due to the same condition. It is claimed also by some (von Behring) that *Bact. tuberculosis* is taken into the body in infancy, that it is not eliminated, and that it sets up infection in later life.

In conclusion, should be mentioned one other indirect way in which infectious agents are eliminated from the body, namely, by being taken up by suctorial insects from the blood. It is necessary that this be done in order to perpetuate the parasite and complete its life cycle in certain instances, as with the mosquitoes in yellow fever and malaria. In others the parasites are only taken up by the insect and subsequently injected into another individual.

The Effect of Infectious Microörganisms on the Body.

It becomes necessary, to consider briefly the effect of the various infectious microörganisms and their toxic substances on the body.

The Period of Incubation.—This period is that elapsing after the entrance of the infecting microörganism into the body until the symptoms of the disease develop. This period is variable in most diseases and depends upon the same factors which modify the results of an infection, namely, virulence, number, avenue and resistance of the individual. The period can be in a measure controlled and shortened in experimental animals by inoculations into the circulatory system and in other regions depending on the microörganism. In some of the human diseases, particularly those of unknown cause, the period of incubation is quite constant, as for example in smallpox and measles.

Local Reactions.—The local effects of the toxic substances of microorganisms are usually first inflammatory and later possibly necrotic. The inflammatory changes may be confined to those of an acute character as, for example, in the various serous hemorrhagic, suppurative and fibrinous inflammations or chronic and proliferative in nature. There may be a variation in the type of inflammation depending on the location and also a variation in two different individuals of the same species, infected at the same point with the same agent. In some diseases such as tetanus the local point of infection may entirely heal and still the bacteria be localized at this point and disseminate their toxin. In some cases of tuberculosis and glanders the bacteria may become localized at the points of infection and after an acute inflammatory stage the point may become the seat of a chronic process and proliferative changes set in.

General Reactions.—*Metabolism.*—The general metabolism of the body is affected by the changes produced in the amount and the chemical

nature of foods which are taken into the body. Altered metabolism may result in muscular weakness, delirium pain and loss of appetite together with vomiting, diarrhœa, disturbance of intestinal absorption and the digestive juices. The fats and carbohydrates, first, and then the proteins are rapidly used up, producing changes in the respired air and in the urine and fæces. Infectious microörganisms may not only interfere with the normal metabolism of the body but also alter the composition of the substances taken into the body producing abnormal compounds which have no nutritive value on absorption or toxic substances related to ptomains, and leucomains.

Attendant upon the changes in metabolism usually there occurs *fever* in all infectious diseases. It is probable that the fever is the result of the protein products of the infecting microörganisms or the disintegration of the protein products of the body due to the toxic action. It is evident that the fever-producing substances, in certain infectious diseases, act in a very characteristic manner as is demonstrated by the so-called typical fever curves. It seems to have been demonstrated that fever is a good sign and that it is indicative of the reaction of the body to the toxins of the infecting agents. It has also been shown that the fall of fever in certain infections is attendant upon the formation and saturation of the body fluids with antibodies.

Blood-forming Organs.—There are usually changes in the blood-forming organs in most all types of infection. The spleen frequently shows enlargement. This is probably due to the disintegration and deposition there of red corpuscles and the action of toxins. The endothelial cells and leucocytes of the spleen are actively phagocytic. The marrow, particularly the fatty marrow, shows large numbers of myelocytes of the neutrophile type and becomes lymphoid in nature in a large number of infections. The lymph glands frequently show endothelial proliferation.

Parenchymatous Tissues.—All sorts of degenerations of the kidneys, heart, liver and some of the other organs frequently occur in infections. Amyloid formation and necrosis sometimes occur. Many of the toxins have special affinities for tissues, such as the tetanus toxin for nerve tissue, and produce changes in them. It is possible also that the fever is responsible for a certain portion of the changes in the parenchymatous organs in infections.

Epithelial and Endothelial Tissues.—In certain infections, as for example

diphtheria, the epithelial tissues are subject to inflammations; in other infections, for example syphilis, the endothelial tissues of the blood-vessels undergo inflammation and sometimes proliferation. The epithelial and endothelial cells are frequently actively phagocytic. Some of the infectious microörganisms produce no effect whatever on these tissues while others produce pronounced changes.

Erythrocytes and Leucocytes.—Lytic substances for the red blood corpuscles are frequently produced in infections (hæmolysins). *Strept. pyogenes, M. pyogenes var. aureus, et al.*, and *Ps. pyocyanea* are among the bacteria which produce hæmolysins. Normal human blood and that of some animals contains an antilysin for the staphylolysin and it is sometimes produced in large amounts. Agglutinin substances for red corpuscles are produced by some pathogenic microörganisms and it is possible that these are the cause of the so-called agglutination thrombi which occur in infections like typhoid fever.

The most marked change seen in the leucocytes in infections is their rather constant increase in number in most cases (leucocytosis). In uncomplicated tuberculosis and typhoid fever, in measles and German measles, in malaria and in dengue, there is no increase in number. In acute inflammations it is polymorphonuclear leucocytes that undergo increase. This increase is sometimes preceded by a decrease (leucopenia). The leucocytes act as the principal phagocytes of the body and are attracted (positive chemotaxis) to the bacteria or other microörganisms after they have been sensitized by the opsonins in the body fluids. Besides acting as phagocytes they may according to Metchnikoff produce antitoxins and bactericidal substances. It has been suggested that the initial leucopenia in some cases is due to negative chemotactic substances. Some virulent bacteria cannot be phagocytized.

Antibody Formation.—One of the general effects of infectious microörganisms in certain infections is the production of antibodies of various kinds. These may be antitoxins, as in the case of tetanus and diphtheria, or bactericidal substances, as in typhoid fever and cholera, or opsonic substances, as in the pyogenic infections. Agglutinins, precipitins and other bodies are sometimes produced.

CHAPTER II.*

IMMUNITY AND SUSCEPTIBILITY.

General.

Definition.—At the outset it is necessary to have a clear understanding of what is meant by the terms immunity and susceptibility. By *immunity* is understood the resistance which an animal body possesses to the etiological microörganisms of an infectious disease and to the disease itself. The name has been adapted from the Latin *immunis* which meant a person who was free or exempt from public duties and, later, one who was exempt from the action of poisons. Briefly stated, immunity is resistance to disease. It results commonly as a natural termination of the process of self-healing in many infectious diseases. The absence of such resistance, which may be total or partial, characterizes what is known as *susceptibility*. Throughout the animal kingdom and also among the plants there is a great variation in the different species in the immunity and susceptibility to various diseases. Immunity bears no relation to the contagiousness of a disease and is only applied as a rule to strictly infectious diseases and not metabolic diseases.

Hypersusceptibility or Anaphylaxis.—It has been shown within the last few years that animals and man are occasionally hypersusceptible to certain proteins. For example, there are individuals who are seriously poisoned by the ingestion of eggs, pineapples and strawberries. It has been demonstrated that an animal may be sensitized to almost any protein by first injecting a dose and then, after a period of eight to thirteen days, may be seriously intoxicated, if not killed, by the injection of a very slight dose of the same protein. The proteins of the bacterial cells have been shown to act in the same way. Animals injected as above mentioned are rendered hypersusceptible to the protein in question. Furthermore, as referred to above, individuals may be naturally hypersusceptible. The manner of the original sensitization in these cases is not known. As

* Prepared by E. F. McCampbell.

before stated, animals may be sensitized and intoxicated by the proteins of bacterial cells the same way that they are to proteins such as egg-white. This sensitization is also transferred *in utero* to the first generation; that is, a mother may be sensitized, convey the sensitizing substances to her young while in the uterus, and when these offspring are subsequently injected after birth with the same protein they may be intoxicated or killed.

PREDISPOSITION AND NON-INHERITANCE OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES.—There is, probably, no such thing as a truly inherited infectious disease. This point has been debated and discussed for a great many years and the above conclusion has been reached by the majority of investigators. By *inheritance* is meant the transference of a property or, in this instance, a pathogenic microörganism by the nuclear substance of either the spermatozoon or the ovum. It is only the nuclear substances which combine to form the new individual. It is true among certain of the lower animals, such as the fowls and some insects, that microörganisms are carried within the egg, but in these cases the eggs are quite different in structure from the human or mammalian ovum. Such instances should be referred to as *germ-cell transmission*, not inheritance. The egg is composed largely of yolk-furnishing food and ample opportunity for growth, while the mammalian ovum contains no yolk. If the microörganisms were present they would be immediately incorporated within the new developing embryo. If the microörganism ever did find its way into the human or mammalian germ cells it would be doubtless a mechanical impossibility for the cells of the embryo to divide and multiply in proper manner. Such pathogens would rapidly destroy the developing cells in the embryo. It is true that the offspring of certain individuals are born diseased. For example, children are sometimes born with syphilis and tuberculosis. At first thought it might seem that this is inheritance but on careful analysis it will be found that the mother is either syphilitic or tuberculous. Furthermore, the locus of the infection is most frequently in the uterus and the microörganisms are transferred to the unborn offspring by means of the fœtal circulation. This condition is what is known as *antenatal acquirement*, it is not heredity. It is impossible for the male to communicate any disease to the offspring unless the female is first infected. Ante- or prenatal acquirement may then be recognized. What can be said in regard to the predisposition to a definite infectious disease? There is a question as to whether true predisposition does exist. Many

cases are on record to show that disease seems to run in families and in localities. For example, tuberculosis and cancer are frequently said to be subject to inheritance or to predisposition in certain cases. It can be easily seen that if one parent is diseased that the germ cell of that parent may be less healthy and when combined with a normal healthy germ cell of the other parent will not give rise to as healthy an individual as when both cells are from healthy individuals. Again, the result when the germ cells of both parents are unhealthy due to the parents being unhealthy is evident. Predisposition seems to resolve itself into the inheritance of a weakened constitution, a constitution which will not withstand the ordinary infections easily. It may be a predisposition to some particular disease or a predisposition to all diseases, infectious and metabolic. Diseases such as tuberculosis are so prevalent that it is very possible that infection may take place and it be interpreted as inherited because the parent died of the same thing. As mentioned above, it may be that the true explanation of the phenomena of predisposition is found in anaphylaxis or the sensitization to various proteins of microörganisms. Further work is necessary along these lines.

Immunity.

Immunity and susceptibility to disease are always relative and never absolute; that is, it is always possible to produce some sort of an infection in a supposedly immune animal by modifying the conditions under which the animal is accustomed to live. For example, the chicken is immune to tetanus but by keeping this animal for some time at a temperature higher than its normal it may be infected. The cow cannot ordinarily be infected with typhoid but when large numbers of the *B. typhosus* are injected under the skin an abscess may be produced. These and many other examples might be mentioned. Our standard of immunity in a particular animal is based upon the conditions as they exist naturally and on the average resistance of animals of the same species.

Immunity to disease may be of two kinds, natural and acquired. *Natural immunity* is that resistance which is possessed normally by an individual. *Acquired immunity* is that resistance which is acquired by having an infection or by being vaccinated or immunized against it with the specific etiological microörganism or its antiserum.

Natural Immunity and Susceptibility.—At this time attention is directed to certain forms of natural immunity and susceptibility.

Racial Immunity and Susceptibility.—It is a familiar fact that certain species of animals and certain races of man differ in their resistance and their susceptibility to infectious diseases. As examples of racial immunity among animals may be mentioned the native cattle of Austria-Hungary and of Japan which are relatively immune to bovine tuberculosis, a disease which causes great loss among other races. Again, the sheep of Algeria are relatively immune to anthrax while all other sheep are extremely susceptible. Field mice are immune to glanders while the common house mouse is susceptible. The negro is more resistant to the infectious microbic agent of yellow fever than other races, but is without doubt more susceptible to tuberculosis. The Melanesians are very susceptible to measles and the Malaysians to beri-beri. Other races are relatively immune. The Japanese are said to be more resistant to scarlatina than other races.

Familial Immunity and Susceptibility.—It is true that certain families vary in their immunity and susceptibility when compared with other families in the same community. For example, tuberculosis undoubtedly shows a tendency to run in families. In determining a case of this kind it is, of course, necessary to take cognizance of the environment of the individual and the association with other diseased persons. The so-called tuberculous diathesis does exist and perhaps we have an explanation of it in anaphylactic phenomena as mentioned previously. Measles and scarlet fever also in certain instances seem to run in families.

Individual Immunity and Susceptibility.—The same variation among individuals associated together is noted in regard to their resistance and susceptibility to disease. It is well known, for example, that in a herd of cattle, which are in the main tuberculous, there are certain individuals which never contract the disease. These animals may be of the same breed and be fed and handled in the same manner as the rest of the herd, still they never become infected. Again, in the human race, with the acute exanthematous diseases such as scarlet fever and measles, there are children, for example in the same family and of nearly the same age and living under exactly the same conditions, who contract the disease and others who do not. The exact cause of individual, familial and racial immunity cannot be satisfactorily explained at the present time. There is also a variation in the individual's resistance at different times dependent upon food and hygienic conditions.

FACTORS OF NATURAL IMMUNITY.—The natural immunity of any

individual to an infection may be dependent upon several things. Our discussion resolves itself under several heads.

The Protection Afforded the Body by the Surfaces.—The body surfaces may be conveniently divided into those which are external and those which are internal.

Skin and Cutaneous Orifices.—The first protective mechanism that we wish to call attention to is the skin. Virulent bacteria are frequently present on the skin of seemingly normal and healthy individuals. Perhaps the most common of these are the *Strept. pyogenes* and the *M. pyogenes vars. aureus et albus.* These microörganisms and others live largely as saprophytes, feeding upon the dead and desquamating epithelial cells. However, when it becomes abraded or wounded, the microörganisms may pass in and produce infection. *B. tetani,* of tetanus or lock-jaw, frequently passes through the skin by means of deep penetrating wounds. The same is true of some other pathogens.

In case bacteria are successful in permeating the skin either directly or by means of cutaneous orifices, they are usually able to set up a marked inflammation of these structures and produce necrosis of the epithelium. It is in this way that pustules, boils, carbuncles and various forms of cellulitis are produced. The secretions of the sebaceous glands are not germicidal but are perhaps slightly antiseptic due to the salts which are contained therein. Furthermore, as soon as the serum from the blood is extravasated there may be a slight germicidal action from this on the bacteria infecting the skin. The soluble toxins of bacteria cannot be absorbed through the unbroken skin.

The Subcutaneous Tissue.—In case the bacteria are successful in permeating the skin and penetrating the subcutaneous connective tissue, we here again find various protective mechanisms showing themselves. This resistance is due to a very rapid production of new connective tissue which serves to limit mechanically the infection. It is due, furthermore, to the germicidal action of the serum, the mechanical and germicidal action of the fibrin and the phagocytic activity of the leucocytes. These various factors will be discussed subsequently in connection with the phenomena and the protective mechanisms of inflammation.

The Exposed Mucous Membranes of the Body.—The exposed mucous membranes of the body usually are covered with a variety of bacteria, some of which are pathogenic. Their moist condition favors the growth of microörganisms, but the mucus which is secreted upon them forms

a mechanical bearer to the bacteria and serves to wash them away. This mucus is not germicidal but is perhaps slightly antiseptic. The only mucous membranes of the body that are really exposed are those of the eyelids, lips, anterior nares, genito-urinary apparatus and the anus. It is perhaps more convenient to discuss these membranes in detail in connection with the cavities which are connected with them.

Nasal Cavity.—Microörganisms find a barrier to the entrance of the nasal cavity in the long hairs which protect the anterior nares and serve to filter out the dust from the inhaled air. The membranes of the nasal tract, besides being covered with mucus, which acts as mentioned above, are also covered with ciliated cells which serve, to some extent, to wash the mucus containing the bacteria from the surface. Infections of the nasal mucous membranes are, however, not uncommon. *Bact. influenzæ, Strept. pyogenes, M. pyogenes vars. aureus et albus, Bact. diphtheriæ, M. intracellularis var. meningitidis* and occasionally *Bact. mallei* produce infection through this membrane.

The Mouth.—The mouth probably contains the largest variety of bacteria to be found anywhere in the body. They are being constantly washed off the membrane by the saliva which contains a certain per cent of mucus. The saliva is not germicidal, and in all probability only very slightly antiseptic. The most permeable part of the mouth is in all probability the tonsils which are situated laterally between this cavity and the pharynx or throat. These lymphatic structures have many deep crypts, and bacteria once entering the tissues of the tonsils may gain access to the lymphatic circulation through these structures.

The Lungs.—In case infectious microörganisms pass down the trachea and bronchi they meet first with the obstruction of the mucus which is secreted upon the surface of these tubes. In addition, ciliated epithelium is present, the wave motion of which moves from within out and serves to cleanse the surfaces from microörganisms as in the nose. Occasionally microörganisms lodge along the trachea and the bronchi and produce slight irritations which if left undisturbed may immediately produce serious infections.

The Stomach.—In case the microörganisms pass down the œsophagus into the stomach, they immediately come into contact, in the normal organ, with the gastric juice, which contains the hydrochloric acid in such concentration that it is at least antiseptic if not germicidal. In case the functional activity of the stomach is disturbed and the hydro-

chloric acid is diminished in amount, microörganisms may grow in the stomach to a limited extent. Furthermore, in case all the particles of food are not thoroughly broken up in the stomach, bacteria which may be contained within these particles may pass through the stomach into the intestine.

The Intestines.—In the intestines the microörganisms come in contact with the alkaline pancreatic juice which is slightly antiseptic and with the bile which is antiseptic and in certain instances bactericidal. They find no particularly favorable conditions for growth in the upper part of the small intestines under normal conditions. Here mucus covers the surfaces. However, if the functional activity of the small intestines is disturbed, bacteria may enter the lymphatic structures (Peyer's patches, solitary follicles) low down in the small intestines and produce infection. Such is the case with *B. typhosus*, of typhoid fever, and with the *Msp. comma*, of Asiatic cholera. Bacteria which have been prevented from development in the small intestines frequently find the opportunity in the large intestine. Here the reaction of the various digestive juices is changed, the movements of contents slower, and the requisite conditions for maximum bacterial growth are provided. Nevertheless, infections of the large intestine with bacteria are not common but may occur, colitis of various forms resulting. The *Amœba dysenteriæ* very frequently develops in the large intestine.

Genito-urinary Tract.—The mucous membranes of the genito-urinary tract varying in male and female present the same features as those of other mucous membranes. Besides the secretion of mucus, various other acid-containing secretions are often present. In addition, in the urinary tract the mechanical factor of irrigation removes the microörganisms. Not infrequently, however, micoörganisms do enter these mucous membranes and produce serious infections, such as the *Treponema pallidum*, of syphilis, the *M. gonorrhœæ*, and the *B. chancroides mallis*. Sometimes these membranes are infected with ordinary pyogenic bacteria.

The Conjunctiva.—The conjunctiva is protected against infection in several ways. First, the eyebrows with their hairs and the eyelashes prevent microörganisms and particles of dust and dirt-carrying microorganisms from entering the eye. Again, the tears flowing across the eye from the outside in, serve to wash this membrane. Bacteria are frequently washed off the conjunctiva and pass down through the lachrymal duct into the nose where they meet the obstructions which have

been previously discussed. In all probability the tears are only slightly antiseptic, not germicidal at all. The conjunctiva is sometimes infected with microörganisms and furthermore serves as a point for entrance into the body of microörganisms when it itself is not infected. The *Bact. influenzæ*, the *Strept. pneumoniæ* and other microörganisms may enter the body and get into the lymphatic and blood circulation in this way.

It it seen therefore that the protection afforded an individual by the body surfaces is a decided factor in the natural immunity of that individual.

The Protective Nature of Inflammatory Processes.—It has been mentioned in a previous discussion that, when bacteria successfully enter a tissue and develop in that tissue, a complex local change results which we designate as *inflammation.* In many instances inflammation is of a beneficial nature. Fundamentally, it may be beneficial. It is questionable whether there are many examples of pernicious results from inflammation. In this connection may be mentioned the thickening of the cerebral blood vessels in syphilis and the increase of connective tissue in cirrhosis of the liver. In these instances the inflammatory processes are brought about by the reaction of the various tissues to the irritation of the infecting microörganisms. Unluckily these reactions are not, on the whole, beneficial to the body, but, as before stated, inflammation is usually beneficial and may be characterized as *the reaction of tissues to injury.* The exact process of inflammation may be traced in case an infecting microörganism succeeds in entering the tissues of the body. The organism having produced its toxic substance first causes a congestion of the blood vessels in the region (hyperæmia). Following this localized congestion there is an extravasation of plasma from the blood vessels. This plasma immediately on leaving the vessels coagulates or clots, producing throughout the infected area fibrin and blood serum. This fibrin serves in a mechanical way to limit the infection, and it has been recently demonstrated that the fibrin possesses germicidal properties in addition. Furthermore, the serum in a large number of instances exerts a bactericidal effect upon the microörganisms. Following the extravasation of blood plasma from the capillaries, the leucocytes pass out to gather about the infected area. These leucocytes are attracted to the area due to the presence in the bacteria of various chemical substances (chemotrophism). They will come as close to the microörganism as possible, depending upon the effect of the toxins

which have been produced upon them. In certain instances they will ingest the bacteria and destroy them. In such cases, the bacteria having been removed, the inflammation rapidly subsides and the infection is, therefore, checked. Such are the characteristics of an acute inflammation. Inflammation, however, not infrequently, depending especially upon the microörganism producing the infection, may become chronic, and in such a case the inflammation, after passing through the acute stage as indicated above, stimulates a proliferation of the connective tissue in the part. In such case, around the outside of the leucocytes, which have been unable to ingest the bacteria, are found young embryonic connective-tissue cells which are known as *round cells*. In case the inflammation progresses, the leucocytes are destroyed and the round cells next the infected area assume more of an elliptical shape, and are known as *epithelioid cells*. On the outside of this layer of epithelioid cells will be found newly produced round cells, and on the outside of the round cells an area of recently migrated leucocytes, those passing out in the beginning having been destroyed by the toxic action of the infecting microörganisms. Not uncommonly the newly produced connective tissue passes on to the adult type and in this instance completely walls off the area of infection and the infecting microörganisms. When this occurs the inflammation and the infection are cured. Among the diseases caused by microörganisms which have a tendency to produce chronic inflammation may be mentioned tuberculosis, leprosy, syphilis, actinomycosis and glanders. It is not an uncommon observation in the human to note in the lungs and in other parts of the body healed areas of tubercular infection; areas that have been completely walled off by the development of adult fibrous tissue. It is probable that about 95 per cent of all individuals living in civilized communities are infected with *Bact. tuberculosis* some time during their life. The inflammation produced by this microörganism passes through the acute stage and into the chronic before being successfully combated and thoroughly walled off. Such an area is known as a tubercle, and in the other diseases mentioned similar areas are produced. It depends entirely upon the virulence of the infecting microörganisms and the resistance of the connective tissue of the individual infected as to whether healing will result.

Natural Antitoxins.—It is an observed fact that certain animals resist the action of toxins produced by bacterial and other plant and

animal cells. The question arises as to whether these animals are immune to the toxins on account of the presence in their bodies of natural antitoxins or other substances. If antitoxin is present it can be detected by experiments made by drawing the serum of the animal and combining it in varying proportions with the toxin in question. These experiments may be made *in vitro*. When toxins and antitoxins are combined in proper proportion and incubated together, a non-toxic molecule is produced which, when injected into a susceptible animal, will produce no effect. It is, of course, necessary to inject the animal with a minimum lethal dose of the toxin in question as a control. If no natural antitoxins are present in the serum of the animal in question, the animal experimentally injected with the combined toxin and serum will die as a result of the non-combination of the toxin. In this way natural antitoxins may be tested. Natural antitoxins for diphtheria have been detected in the blood serum of about 50 per cent of normal individuals and about 30 per cent of horses. However, their occurrence in other animals for this specific bacterium and for other species is comparatively rare, and the explanation of the fact that certain animals are immune to toxins must be found elsewhere. It has been shown, for example, that the frog is immune to tetanus toxin, and that, when this animal is injected with this toxin, a large part of the toxin remains unchanged in the circulation for a variable period of time and may be later drawn off in the serum, and will produce a toxic effect when injected into a susceptible animal. There are no natural antitoxins present in the blood serum of the frog. It has been found that the immunity of this animal is due to the fact that there are no cells in the body possessing the necessary side-chains (open valencies) for chemical combination with the toxin, consequently the intoxication of the cells does not result. It seems that the best explanation that certain animals are immune to toxins is ascribable to the fact that there are no chemical substances in the cells with which toxin can combine. It is probably not true then that natural antitoxins explain all the phenomena in this connection.

Natural Antibacterial Substances.—Natural antibacterial substances are present in the blood serum and body fluids of a large number of animals. In order to demonstrate the presence of the natural antibacterial substances it is necessary to inject the experimental animal with a carefully washed culture of the bacteria in question. If the animal re-

mains uninfected, two possibilities present themselves: first, the presence of natural antitoxins and second, the presence of antibacterial substances. It is necessary, of course, to have excluded the possibility of natural antitoxins, it having been demonstrated that the organism injected produces its diseased effects by endotoxins held within the bacterial cell rather than by toxins. The antibacterial action of the blood may be due to two constituents, namely, cellular substances (leucocytes) and serum substances. The rat and the dog are both immune to anthrax, but the immunity of the dog is not due to antibacterial substance but to the phagocytic activity of the leucocytes, while in the rat the immunity is due not to the leucocytes but to the antibacterial substance.

Antibacterial action is due to two substances in the serum: first, the thermostable substance which combines with the bacteria, called an *amboceptor*, and second, a thermolabile substance, called a *complement* which combines with the amboceptor after this substance has combined with the bacterial cell. It is sufficient to say at this time that these substances do occur in normal sera and that the result of their combination with the bacterial cell causes the death of the bacteria and in some cases a lysis (solution) of the bacteria in addition.

There may be present in the body of animals antibacteria substances of three kinds: first, those just killing bacteria (bactericidal), second, those killing the bacteria and dissolving them (bacteriolytic) and third, leucocytes which are active in the ingestion of the specific microörganisms. In all probability the overactivity of leucocytes in every case of natural phagocytic immunity is due to the presence of normal opsonins,—substances which sensitize the bacteria and render them susceptible to phagocytosis.

Normal Hemolysins.—Normal hemolysins (hemoglobin-liberating substances) are present in the sera of certain animals for the red blood corpuscles of other animals of different species, and the same species, but never for the red corpuscles of the animal from which the serum was obtained. Such substances are known respectively as *heterolysins*, *isolysins*, and if the last occurred the name *autolysins* would be applied. The hemolysins will be discussed later.

Normal Agglutinins.—Normal agglutinins for various bacteria, such as *B. typhosus*, *Msp. comma*, *Bact. dysenteriæ*, *B. coli* and *Ps. pyocyanea* are present in the blood serum of animals. It is necessary, of course,

to exclude normal agglutinins when testing the serum of the infected case for the purpose of diagnosis.

Normal Precipitins.—No normal precipitins for bacteria occur in the sera of animals. Precipitins for various blood sera, however, do occur. For example, human serum will precipitate the monkey serum. These substances will be discussed in detail under acquired immunity.

ACQUIRED IMMUNITY.—Acquired immunity is that resistance which is acquired after having an infection, being artificially inoculated with the etiological microörganism of the infection (vaccination), or by being inoculated with the products remaining in the body after an infection, either natural or artificial, has taken place. Acquired immunity may be divided into two classes, namely, *active* and *passive.* Active immunity is that immunity resulting from an infection or vaccination. In it the body cells react and give rise to the formation of antibodies. When antibodies produced in active immunity are inoculated into other animals the immunity conferred is called *passive immunity.*

Active Immunity.—Active immunity may be produced artificially in the following ways: by the injection of living bacteria, by the injection of bacteria of reduced virulence, by the injection of dead bacteria, by the injection of the secretory and excretory products of bacteria (toxins, etc.), by the injection of the disintegration products of bacteria liberated after the death of the cells (endotoxins), by the injection of bacteria or bacterial products which in no way are related to the bacterium against which immunity is conferred (p. 469).

As a result of the injection of living bacteria in small amounts or of bacteria of reduced virulence the body cells react and produce bactericidal substances (lysins). As a result of the injection of dead bacteria, the opsonins are increased in the blood. As a result of the injection of the secretory and excretory products of the bacteria, namely, toxins, antitoxins are produced. As a result of the injection of the disintegration products of bacteria, namely, endotoxins, bactericidal substances are produced. In cases where bacteria or bacterial products, which are in no way related to the bacterium against which immunity is conferred, are injected, it is probable that bactericidal substances are produced. This condition only occurs in rare instances.

Passive Immunity.—Passive immunity may be conferred by the injection of antitoxins, and by the injection of bactericidal substances. In this type of artificially produced acquired immunity the body cells do

not react to any great extent and the injected antibodies remain. Various other antibodies may be injected into other animals and confer upon them passive immunity.

The principal antibodies produced in active immunity will be subsequently discussed.

The Origin and Occurrence of Antibodies.

The toxic and some of the non-toxic substances of bacteria and cells from other sources when introduced into the body of a susceptible animal usually have the power to produce *antibodies*. Substances having the power of producing antibodies are known as *antigens*. Among the antibodies produced are antitoxins, bactericidal and lytic substances, opsonins, antiferments, agglutinins, and precipitins. The antigenic substances for these antibodies will be discussed later. The mechanism of action of the antigen is of interest. It is supposed that the antigen can combine only with the cell which has the proper combining groups or receptors. The antigen combines in the same way that food products combine with the tissue cells. In case there is no group in the tissue cell with which the antigen can combine, that tissue is naturally immune to the antigenous substances in question. If all the tissue cells in the body are in this condition then the individual may be said to be naturally immune. It occasionally occurs that certain cells of the body are not susceptible to the action of antigens at one time, while at another they are susceptible. For example, the red blood corpuscles of the young chick are not affected by the lysin in spider poison, while those of the adult are readily hemolyzed (hemoglobin liberated). It also occurs in rare cases that the antigen, when injected into an animal whose tissue cells show no affinity for it or no proper receptors, that it will remain in the circulation for days and weeks without combining and producing any effect. The antigen, for example a toxin, can be isolated from the blood in such a case in the same concentration and form as when it was injected. Some antigens have marked affinities for certain tissues, as for example, tetanus toxin and nerve cells. In this case, however, the large part of the antitoxin is produced by cells other than those of the nervous system. The production of antibodies for antigens probably occurs in the following way: the antigenous substances combine with the cells, utilizing all the available receptors, leaving none open for food, and thus pervert-

ing the general metabolism of the cell. In such cases there is a regeneration of these chemical receptors by the tissue cells which more than compensates for those with which the antigen has combined, and as a result the cell discharges them (chemical substances) free into the body fluids.

The various antibodies are usually produced more readily by certain tissues than by others. Antibody formation may be of a strictly local character depending upon the point where the antigen is injected. For example, when abrin is placed in the eye, antiabrin is produced, but only in the eye so injected. In the majority of cases the antibodies are produced in some special tissues or tissue at a distance from the point of injection.

Following the injection of an antigen into the body of an animal, there is always a decrease in the resistance of that body and a decrease in the antibodies produced, followed in a short time by a marked increase in their formation. The former condition is spoken of as the "*negative phase*" and the latter as the "*positive phase.*"

Antibodies may be transferred from mother to young before birth, but only after fetal circulation is established. It has been positively demonstrated that antibodies are not transferred by the ovum or the spermatozoon directly. They are only carried from the blood of the mother and diffused through the placenta into the blood of the fetus. It has, however, been shown that the eggs of immunized chickens contain antibodies occasionally. This is "germ-cell transmission" and not true hereditary transmission. The transferred immunity or antibodies do not remain over two or three months in the bodies of the offspring after birth.

ANTITOXINS.—Antitoxins are so called because they combine with and render inert the soluble toxins. Antitoxins are produced for all the bacteria producing soluble toxins and for the toxic substances of a large number of other plant and animal cells. Antitoxins are the free chemical receptors of certain of the cells of the body. That is, they are chemical substances which have been thrown off from the cells of the body and in all probability were normally used for the purpose of taking up food substances. These chemical substances are produced in excess of those actually needed by the cell due to a stimulation of the cells by the toxin. The antitoxins are labile substances which cannot be analyzed. They may be similar to euglobulins. They are composed of molecules of large size. Antitoxins when present in the body of an

animal are protective and in many cases curative. According to Ehrlich, toxins are assumed to possess two combining groups, one known as the *haptophore group*, which combines with the cells, and another known as the *toxophore group*, which combines with the cell after the haptophore group has combined and thus produces an intoxication of the cell. The haptophore group of the toxin molecule is thermostabile (heat resistant) and the toxophore group is thermolabile (heat susceptible). When a toxin is injected into the body of an animal, or is produced during the process of an infection, the haptophore group combines with the cells for which it has an especial affinity and with the receptors (chemical substances which are unsaturated and open to combination with other chemical substances) of these cells. These chemical receptors of the cells with which the toxin haptophore group combines are designated as *haptophile receptors*. It is probable, also, that the toxophore group of the toxin combines with other chemical receptors in the cell after the haptophore and haptophile groups have combined. These are designated as *toxophile receptors*. The haptophore receptors of the toxin having combined with the haptophile receptors of the cells, the toxophore group of the toxin then combines and intoxicates, stimulates or sometimes kills the cells, depending on the affinity for the cells and the concentration of this group. In case the cell is not killed, it is stimulated and begins to return to its normal functions. All the available receptors of the cells having been occupied and combined with, the cells set about to generate new chemical receptors in order that food substances and other chemical substances may be taken up. The cells produce these haptophile receptors in excess, that is, there is overcompensation, and they are subsequently excreted into the lymph and blood. These haptophile receptors are, in fact, the chemical substances which we know as *antitoxins*. It is not only the cells with which both the haptophore and toxophore groups of the toxin combine, because of special affinity, which make all the antitoxin, but cells which are widely separated from those which have an especial affinity for the toxin, also produce antitoxin. For example, tetanus toxin has an especial affinity for nerve tissue, but this tissue produces little of the antitoxin. In this case most of the antitoxin seems to be produced in the spleen, lymph glands, and bone marrow. The haptophore groups of the toxin have at least combined with these cells and stimulated them to the overproduction of haptophile receptors.

It has been mentioned that the antitoxins are protective to the body

infected. The haptophile receptors (antitoxins), after they are thrown off, combine with the toxin haptophore and often the toxophore group does not have the opportunity for combining and killing the cells. This is in case there is no special affinity for the cells, as in the above-mentioned chief antitoxin-producing cells in tetanus. In such cases frequently all the available toxin is bound and very little is left to combine with the tissue with which it has an especial affinity, as is the case with tetanus toxin and nerve tissue. The antitoxins serve in this instance as protective substances. Furthermore, in case the antitoxin is excreted into the blood and lymph, it serves in addition as a curative agent, all the toxin which is produced combining with all the available antitoxin in the circulation, and none is left to combine with the cells of the body. The maximum affinity is always between toxin and antitoxin rather than between toxin and cell, if there is any antitoxin present. Antitoxins are prepared *artificially* and used for both prophylactic and curative purposes in the treatment and prevention of certain of the infectious diseases such as tetanus and diphtheria.

Antitoxins are also produced in the bodies of animals which are to all appearances immune to the toxins concerned. For example, the alligator is immune to tetanus, but when tetanus toxin is injected into this animal tetanus antitoxin will be produced. In this case the haptophore group of the toxin has combined with certain of the cells of the body, but with such cells as give no opportunity for the toxophore group to combine, or have no affinity for this group. In the case of the alligator the nerve tissue seems to possess no toxophile receptors for the toxin.

There are certain animals which are very susceptible to the action of certain toxins which will not produce antitoxin when the toxin is injected. For example, the guinea-pig and the rabbit will not produce tetanus or diphtheria antitoxin when injected with small and gradually increasing doses of tetanus or diphtheria toxin. If the toxin is modified chemically by the addition of chemicals such as trichloride of iodine or by heat, these animals may be immunized and will produce antitoxin. In this instance the virulence of the toxophore group is reduced and it is possible to inject the animals with more toxin, thus combining with more cells and finally liberating more antitoxin.

It should also be noted that animals of the same species vary in their power to produce antitoxin. The production of the product varies with the age and general condition of the animal and with the duration and the

degree of toxicity of the toxin used. On account of this condition it is necessary to establish units or standards for determining the strength of antitoxin.

As stated in the discussion of natural immunity to toxins, there are some animals which, when injected with toxins, do not possess cells which have receptors open for chemical combination, and as a result the toxin remains free in the circulation for varying periods of time. For example, as before stated the frog is immune to tetanus and an injection will not produce any antitoxin. If tetanus toxin is injected into this animal it will remain in the circulation in the same form as injected and can be withdrawn after a few weeks or a month.

The Mechanism of the Neutralization of Toxin by Antitoxin.—At one time it was supposed that the antitoxin was but a toxin in a little different form, but this has been disproved. The amount of antitoxin produced is much greater than the amount of toxin which is injected or produced during an infection.

The union between toxin and antitoxin is of a definite chemical nature. After these two substances unite, the resulting compound is harmless and differs from both the toxin and the antitoxin in that it is much more stable.

In the beginning all experiments dealing with the union of toxin and antitoxin were performed in the body of an experimental animal (*in vivo*), but finally Ehrlich showed that they would act and combine equally well in the test tube (*in vitro*) and could be studied in a much better manner.

The various toxins are neutralized by their antitoxins with varying rapidity. The concentration of these bodies, the temperature, the character of the medium in which they are placed, and the amount of electrolytic salts present, are accountable for the differences in length of time of combination. In the main these substances act like most chemicals and some of them show evidences of following the laws of multiple proportions. As a matter of fact, the same laws which govern the union of toxin and antitoxin govern other antibodies and their antigens.

As before stated, toxins have a greater affinity for the free haptophile receptors of cells (free antitoxin) than for those still associated with the cells. Toxin and antitoxin will always combine, if the opportunity presents itself, before toxin and body cells will enter into chemical union. Furthermore, in certain instances, such as in diphtheria, when the toxin has been partially bound by the body cells and antitoxin is produced in

sufficient quantities or is injected, the toxin-cell chemical union will be broken up and the toxin and antitoxin will combine. Obviously, antitoxins of this kind are very valuable in effecting a cure in certain infections. In the above-mentioned case, the union between the toxin and the cell is comparatively unstable, but this is not true in every case, as for example in tetanus. In this case when once the toxin is combined with the cells of the nervous system and other body cells, it is very difficult to break the union by the addition of antitoxin. It requires exceedingly large doses and these rarely act efficiently. The union between toxin and body cells in this instance is very stable. We have here an explanation why tetanus antitoxin is of so little use for therapeutic purposes. It is, however, of use as a prophylactic when there is free toxin being produced in the body. Diphtheria antitoxin is efficient both as a curative and prophylactic agent for the reasons which have been discussed above.

Antitoxin, like toxin, is fairly unstable and such agents as heat, light, chemicals, etc., affect it and reduce the antitoxic power. It may, however, be dried and kept for long periods of time in the dark. It is necessary in the commercial preparation of antitoxin and in its experimental study to have a unit or standard of measurement.

Units of Antitoxin.—In order to arrive at a standard it is necessary to test accurately a given antitoxin to determine the number of so-called antitoxic units it contains (p. 482).

In the accurate study of the neutralization of the toxin by the antitoxin it is noted that, adding fractional amounts of the antitoxin to the L° dose of the toxin and injecting the resulting mixture into test animals (guinea pigs), there is not a corresponding decrease in the toxicity as would be expected. The toxin seems to be made up of various parts. The part just mentioned has a great affinity for the antitoxin, but is not really toxic. Such parts of the toxin molecule are called *protoxoids*. The protoxoids compose about one-fourth of the amount of toxin necessary to saturate one immunity unit. After one-fourth antitoxin is added the mixtures of toxin-antitoxin become less toxic for the experimental animals down to the point where three-fourths of the amount of toxin necessary to saturate one unit of antitoxin is used. This fraction is the *true toxin*. Here again the toxicity of the mixture does not decline and it has been demonstrated by Ehrlich and others that this is due to another part of the toxin molecule which has less avidity for the antitoxin than the toxin itself and the protoxoid. This part of the molecule is

called an *epitoxoid*, *true toxoid* or *toxon*. The toxin molecule necessary to saturate one unit of antitoxin is, therefore, made up of one-fourth protoxoid, one-half true toxin, and one-fourth epitoxoid, toxoid, or toxon. The toxon is in certain instances slightly toxic and is supposed by some to be a secondary toxin and in certain diseases, such as diphtheria, this substance which has a weak affinity for antitoxin is supposed to be the cause of diphtheritic paralysis.

Antitoxins may be prepared for all the bacteria producing soluble toxins, such as *Bact. diphtheriæ*, *B. tetani*, *B. botulinus*, and *Ps. pyocyanea*. Antitoxic substances may also be made for some of the products of other bacteria such as the *Strept. pyogenes*, but these differ from true antitoxins. Antitoxins may also be prepared for the toxins of certain plant cells such as abrin, ricin, crotin, and for the toxins of animals, such as snake venom and spider poison. These substances are in the main similar to those produced by bacteria, although in certain characteristics they differ materially.

Lysins and Bactericidal Substances.—Under the lysins will be discussed those substances occurring in normal and immune sera which have the power of destroying and dissolving bacteria, those dissolving or liberating the hemoglobin of erythrocytes and those substances which have a lytic action on various body cells. The substances which act on the bacteria are called *bacteriolysins*, those acting on erythrocytes are called *hemolysins* and those acting on cells in general are called *cytolysins*. The mechanism of these lytic processes is quite complex. There are certain substances which kill or serously injure bacteria and body cells and do not actually dissolve them. Such chemical bodies are designated respectively as bactericidal substances and cytotoxins.

The first observations in regard to bactericidal and bacteriolytic substances were made by Nuttall and later by Buchner. Buchner noted these substances in normal sera and other body fluids and named them *alexins* (Gr. to guard). He assumed that they were the important substances concerned in the immunity of the body. This is not necessarily true, as certain blood sera are frequently highly bactericidal and the individual is relatively susceptible. This is true of human blood serum and *B. typhosus*. Furthermore, in certain instances the animal is immune to the disease and the serum is not in any sense bactericidal. This is the case with the dog and *Bact. anthracis*.

Pfeiffer a number of years ago observed that when *Msp. comma*, of

Asiatic cholera, was introduced into the peritoneal cavity of the normal guinea pig that the bacteria underwent lysis. He also noted that the process was much more rapid in the immune guinea pig. Pfeiffer had the idea in the beginning that lysis did not take place anywhere but in the body of the animal, but later it was demonstrated by a number of men, among them Metchnikoff, that the lytic action would also take place in the test tube (*in vitro*).

Bordét and others later showed that some normal sera possess the power of liberating the hemoglobin in red blood corpuscles. These hemolytic substances could be developed in the body of an animal if that animal were injected or immunized with a suspenison of erythrocytes. The phenomenon of hemolysis is easily observed and studied and the amount of the hemolytic agent can be accurately determined, as the amount of hemoglobin liberated varies accordingly. The mechanism of hemolysis and bacteriolysis correspond exactly and accordingly much about the latter process was first worked out by experimentation with hemolysins.

Lytic substances can be prepared for a large number of bacteria and for many body cells, as before stated. These bodies may be markedly increased by the usual processes of immunization. Those substances which have the power to produce lysins are called *lysinogens* and are distinct antigens, as the lysins are antibodies. The lysins may be prepared by injecting the live cells, the dead cells, the disintegration products of cells, and in some cases the metabolic products of cells.

The Structures of Lysins.—Lysins and bactericidal substances have been shown to be composed of two distinct parts: one a thermolabile part, known as the *complement*, which is destroyed at a temperature of 56° to 60° for thirty minutes, and another part which is thermostable, known, on account of its double combining ability, as an *amboceptor*. This amboceptor will withstand heating to 60° for twenty-four hours, but if the temperature is raised to 70° it is readily destroyed. If kept at ordinary room temperature or in the ice box, amboceptor will remain active for years. According to Ehrlich, amboceptors are the free chemical receptors of the body cells. They are produced in the same way as antitoxins, but differ from these bodies in that they have two combining groups, one known as the *cytophile* group, with which the amboceptor combines with the bacteria or other cells, and the other known as the *complementophile* group with which it combines with the complement. The complement seems to be a normal

constituent of the blood serum and other body fluids. It is undoubtedly produced by the various body cells (leucocytes, et. al.) and during the immunization of animals with certain antigens it is probably increased only slightly, if any, in amount. The complement is supposed to be composed of two groups also, one a haptophore with which it combines with the amboceptor and another a zymophore which really produces the lytic action after the haptophore has combined with the amboceptor. On heating the complement the zymophore group is destroyed and a *complementoid* produced. This substance is similar to a toxoid and will combine with amboceptor, but no lysis will result. It is, however, the amboceptor, or so-called immune body, that undergoes the decided increase during the processes of immunization. It can be accurately demonstrated that the amboceptor must combine with the cell in question before the complement can combine. Cells, such as bacteria or erythrocytes, may be saturated with amboceptor and washed and when the complement is added and combined, lysis takes place. The complement will not combine with the cells under any circumstances unless amboceptor is present and has first combined with the cells. It is probable in a given serum or body fluid, there are several complements which may activate a variety of amboceptors. However, it has been shown that the same complement will activate a variety of amboceptors of certain kinds.

While the majority of lytic sera are thermolabile some have been noted which are thermostable to a certain degree. Hamilton has described such a serum resulting after immunizing animals to *Bact. pseudodiphtheriæ* and Horton has noted thermostable substances in normal rat serum which are lytic for *Bact. anthracis*.

Various sera have been noted which possess amboceptors for certain cells, but are not lytic because they do not possess the necessary complement. For example, the serum of the dog contains amboceptors for *Bact. anthracis* but no complement. If in this instance a foreign complement such as that in guinea-pig or rabbit serum is added there will be lysis of the bacterial cells.

Occasionally the absence of complement is of benefit to the animal in question and may account for the seeming natural immunity. For example, the venoms of the poisonous snakes are nothing more than amboceptors and when these substances are injected into an animal body such as a hog which possesses no required complement, no lysis of the

body cells takes place. On the other hand should the animal, such as a rabbit or man, possess the necessary complement, as they do, lysis will take place.

Substances are sometimes present normally in sera which have the power of combining with the amboceptors which may be present, and in turn prevent the latter from combining with the cells so that when the complement is added there will be no lysis. Such substances must be designated as *antiamboceptors*. These antiamboceptors may be developed in an animal by immunization with amboceptors of definite kinds (*antiantibodies*). There are other substances which may also engage the amboceptors which cannot be called amboceptors in the true sense, but they accomplish the same purpose and are therefore classed with these bodies.

The Deviation of the Complement.—The complement may be deviated in several ways and as a result lysis of the cells in question may be prevented.

Occasionally there is noted in sera normally substances which may combine with the complement and prevent this body from combining with the amboceptor. Such substances are *anticomplements* and may be produced artificially by the immunization of animals with complement. Occasionally complement is absorbed by tissue cells and prevented from combining with amboceptor. In case there is an excess of amboceptors in a serum and only a small amount of complement it may be deviated. In this case the cells will have taken up all the possible amboceptor and there will be an abundance of amboceptor free in the serum. It has been demonstrated that complement will combine with free amboceptor before it will combine with bound amboceptor. In this case all the available complement will be taken up by the amboceptor which is free and consequently there will be no lysis. This fact is of importance in certain infections where the development of bacteriolytic substances is of importance and necessary in effecting a recovery. The infectious microörganisms may not be destroyed for the above reason.

The Fixation of the Complement as a Test for Antibodies.—A very ingenious procedure has been devised for the testing of sera for unknown antibodies similar to bactericidal substances and lysins. The method of demonstrating the fixation of the complement was first worked out by Neisser and Wechsberg. The reaction is made use of in the recently devised test for syphilis which is briefly stated as follows: when the syphilitic antigen is combined with the supposed amboceptor in the blood

serum of the suspected case of syphilis and a foreign complement, which has been accurately standardized, is added, this complement is bound, and is therefore prevented from combining with red blood corpuscles and a hemolytic amboceptor which may be added later. Hemolysis is, therefore, prevented. The technic of the test is as follows: the syphilitic antigen is prepared by making an aqueous or alcoholic extract of the liver of a syphilitic fetus. This antigen is supposed to contain the protein products of the *Treponema pallidum*, the etiological microörganism of syphilis. The blood serum of the suspected case of syphilis is heated to 56° for thirty minutes in order that the normal or immune serum complement may be destroyed. The new complement is supplied from normal guinea-pig serum. Before beginning the test it is necessary to have a rabbit immunized with some hemolytic antigen, such as sheep erythrocytes. There is developed in the serum of the rabbit the hemolysin for sheep corpuscles which when combined with these corpuscles will cause a liberation of hemoglobin. In the rabbit's serum there is both hemolytic amboceptor and complement. It is necessary to heat this hemolytic rabbit serum to 56° for thirty minutes in order to destroy its complement and also it is necessary to find out accurately the amount of guinea pig serum which will complement the resulting hemolytic amboceptor. This definite amount of complement having been determined, it is mixed with syphilitic antigen plus the suspected syphilitic amboceptor mentioned above and allowed to incubate for one hour and thirty minutes at 37°. If the serum is from a case of syphilis the antibodies (amboceptors) will be present and combine with the antigen, and also the guinea pig serum complement. The next step in the technic is to add to the above-mentioned mixture the hemolytic amboceptor and its antigen, sheep corpuscles. If the complement has been bound there will be none left to combine with the hemolytic amboceptor and no hemolysis of the sheep corpuscles will result. If the patient's serum does not contain syphilitic amboceptors or antibodies the complement will not be bound and hemolysis will result. This test has been designated as the *Wassermann test*, on account of the man first working it out in the case of syphilis, and has shown itself to be very efficient in the diagnosis of this disease.

The fixation of the complement may be made use of in the detection of any bacterial antibody, the procedure being the same as above indicated and the hemolytic system used as an indicator as in the case of

syphilis. The antigen, however, is different. When working with specific bacteria a suspension of bacterial cells in 0.85 per cent sodium chloride solution constitutes the antigen.

CYTOTOXINS AND CYTOLYSINS.—The names *cytotoxin* and *cytolysin* are used synonymously and are applied to those substances in sera and other body fluids which have the power of destroying cells. In a broad sense any substance destroying a cell would be cytotoxic but the terms are usually applied in the more limited manner, as above indicated.

Cytotoxins are produced in the same manner as other antibodies. The immunization of an animal, for example, with renal cells, produces in the blood serum of that animal a cytotoxin for the parenchymatous cells of the kidney. Cytotoxins can be produced for practically all the parenchymatous cells of the body. These immune bodies are not very specific and even careful experimentation leads to confusing results. For example, when an animal is immunized to kidney cells there is produced in the body of the immune animal cytotoxins for kidney cells and also cytotoxins in smaller amounts for other parenchymatous cells such as those of the liver. In the beginning it was supposed that the cytotoxins would be of value in the study of the physiological functions of organs and tissues. For example, a cytotoxin having been produced for the thyroid gland or adrenal gland, it would be possible to inject this into another animal, destroy the gland, and then note the effect on the body. It was thought it might be possible to produce anticytotoxins which would be able to counteract the action of those cytotoxic substances which are produced in the body during the course of infections. However, the lack of specificity of the cytotoxin renders these procedures impracticable. The fact that cytotoxins are produced for cells other than those used in the process of immunization also indicates that there are similar chemical substances in the various cells.

There are *autocytotoxins* produced in the body and these probably result from the absorption of the products of disintegrated tissue cells. If no *anticytotoxins* for these autocytotoxins are produced, or they are not destroyed in some way, a very "vicious cycle" would result in that more of the specific cells of the organ or tissue used would be destroyed. Cytotoxins have been prepared for leucocytes and these substances are sometimes developed during the progress of an infection. The *leucocytotoxins* have perhaps been studied more than any of the rest.

When ova are used for the purpose of producing cytotoxins, besides

producing these substances in the serum of the immune animal, cytotoxins for spermatozoa of the same species are also produced, showing that these cells have some chemical substances in common.

Cytotoxins are similar to bacteriolysins and hemolysins, they consist of amboceptors which are activated by the complement which is normally present in the serum or other body fluids.

THE OPSONINS AND PHAGOCYTOSIS.—It was shown a number of years ago that certain types of leucocytes and other body cells were capable of ingesting bacteria and other plant and animal cells. The mechanism of this process was not known until Wright and Douglas demonstrated certain substances in the blood serum and other body fluids which have the power of rendering the bacteria susceptible to phagocytosis. These substances are known as *opsonins* (Gr. I prepare food for). It has been shown that the phenomena of the phagocytosis depends almost wholly on these specific opsonins. Leucocytes which have been washed free from all serum will not take up bacteria except a few in rare instances. Bacteria which have been placed in contact with blood serum or other body fluids may be thoroughly washed, and when they are placed in contact with the leucocytes, they will be taken up. The opsonin acts chemically upon certain substances within the bacteria, and, so to speak, sensitizes them. Opsonins for the various bacteria are present in many normal sera. They may be produced in animals not containing them by the process of immunization with various antigenous microörganisms. Opsonins are destroyed at about 60° for thirty minutes, but there is some variation among them. When kept at 0° these opsonins will remain active for several days, but at a temperature of the body, 37°, after the serum has been withdrawn, they rapidly deteriorate. Many opsonins have the features of agglutinins and precipitins, although they bear some points of resemblance to antitoxins and complements. They possess two groups, a haptophile group with which they combine with the bacteria and the functional group which really sensitizes the microörganism and makes it phagocytable.

It has been shown that the opsonins may be increased in the serum of the normal or infected individual by the injection of heated (60°.) cultures of the specific etiological microörganisms. Such substances are called *opsonogens* or *vaccines*. They have been used to a great extent in the treatment of the various pus infections due to the staphylococci and also in tuberculosis and pneumonia. It is supposed that the opsonins are produced in the subcutaneous tissues and in the muscles.

The Opsonic Index.—The concentration of opsonins may be recorded in an individual. Suppose the leucocytes of the infected individual take up a certain number of bacteria, say an average of 5, after counting 50 to 100 polymorphonuclear leucocytes. In this case the *phagocytic index* is said to be 5. Again, suppose the leucocytes of the normal individual take up 15 of the bacteria in question, the average after counting 50 to 100 leucocytes being always taken. The phagocytic index in this case would be 15. In order to determine the *opsonic index* of an infected individual the phagocytic index of the normal individual is taken as a denominator of a fraction and the phagocytic index of the infected individual as the numerator of the fraction. In our above illustration this would be 5/15, 1/3 or reduced to decimals 0.33+. The opsonic index, it can be seen, is a fair indication of the resistance of the particular individual to the infecting microörganism in question. By the use of vaccines the opsonic index may be raised to at least 1.0 or even more, showing that the leucocytes are actively phagocytic and the opsonins increased in concentration in the blood serum. In such a case recovery will be indicated.

Occasionally counts are made of the number of leucocytes which are actually taking up bacteria, disregarding the number of bacteria within the cells. The determination is always made on the basis of 100 and the per cent of leucocytes which are phagocytic is taken as the so-called *percentage index.* The percentage index and the opsonic index give a very fair idea as to the resistance of the particular individual to an infecting microörganism.

The virulent bacteria are not phagocytized. For example, virulent streptococci and pneumococci are not phagocytized as easily as nonvirulent forms. It seems in this instance that there is some toxic or poisonous substance produced by the bacteria that is antagonistic to the opsonins or perhaps an antiopsonin is formed.

The possession of opsonins in the body fluids of an animal is not absolute proof that such animal is highly resistant to infections. The resistance really depends on the activity of the phagocytes and in certain cases where the opsonins are high in concentration the phagocytes are not active. In other cases the reverse is true and in these cases opsonins and phagocytosis are of the utmost importance in the immunity of individuals. For example, in anthrax, the immunity of the dog is due to opsonins and phagocytosis, while in the rat, although opsonins are present,

there is no phagocytosis and immunity is due to antibacterial substances in the blood.

Hemoopsonins.—It has been demonstrated that very frequently opsonins for red corpuscles are present in the serum and body fluids of animals. Such bodies sensitize the red blood corpuscles and render them susceptible to phagocytosis by the polymorphonuclear leucocytes and the epithelial and other body cells. They are designated as *hemoopsonins*. Occasionally *iso-* and *autohemoopsonins* are present in normal sera. For example, in human serum, it is probable that the processes of red blood corpuscle destruction which take place in the spleen may be referred to the action of these types of opsonins and various phagocytic cells.

AGGLUTININS.—Agglutinins are substances which are present in the blood serum and body fluids of normal and immune animals which have the power of producing a clumping and sedimentation of the microörganisms causing the specific infection or used in immunization. The relationship of the agglutinins to the phenomena of immunity and the other antibodies which are produced during the process of infection and experimental inoculation is not known. One of the first agglutinins to be observed was that occurring in the blood serum in typhoid fever and the agglutination reaction is now made use of in the diagnosis of this disease (*Widal test*). Agglutinins are specific substances and at high dilutions only cause a clumping of the microörganisms which give rise to their formation (antigens).

Normal Agglutinins.—Agglutinating substances, as above stated, are frequently found in normal sera. In this case no direct connection between their formation and specific microörganisms can be established. Normal human serum frequently contains agglutinins for *B. typhosus*, *B. coli*, *Bact. dysenteriæ* and occasionally *M. pyogenes aureus* and *Msp. comma* in certain rare cases. Agglutinins for *B. typhosus* which are present normally in the serum may give rise to confusion when this test is used for the diagnosis of typhoid fever. It is therefore necessary to dilute the serum of a suspected case of typhoid fever at least one to forty or one to fifty times in order to exclude the normal agglutinins and the so-called coagglutinins.

The Production of Agglutinins.—Agglutinins may be produced artificially by the injection of bacteria, dead or alive, into the veins, subcutaneous tissues, or peritoneal cavity. In exceptional cases they may be produced by feeding the bacteria, injecting them into the air passages of the

lungs or by rubbing them into the skin. It is probable that the highest concentration of agglutinins results from the injection of dead bacteria. It is, however, necessary that these bacteria be not subjected to a temperature above 62°. A large majority of pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria form agglutinins when injected into the body. Obviously, the concentration of these agglutinins differs greatly. Very high agglutinating sera are noted, such as, for example, one in one million when *B. typhosus* is used and one in two million when *Msp. comma* of Asiatic cholera is used. Often two strains of the same organism will vary greatly in their power to produce agglutinins. Again, the concentration of the agglutinins in an infected animal varies from day to day, and in order to make an accurate observation, it is necessary to make repeated examinations on subsequent days. For example, in typhoid fever the agglutinins one day may be thirty times as strong as on a subsequent day.

The Distribution of Agglutinins in the Blood.—As before stated these antibodies are found in practically all the body fluids. They reach their highest concentration in all probability in the blood serum. In certain cases they are in high concentration in the milk. Agglutinins are also present at times in the sputum, tears, and the humors of the eye.

Inherited Agglutinins.—Agglutinating substances may be transferred from the mother to the offspring *in utero*. It has been frequently demonstrated for example, that the offspring of mothers who have recently recovered from typhoid fever or are infected at the time of birth, have agglutinins in the body fluids. The same is true of the offspring of glandered horses. Notwithstanding the fact that the milk is frequently rich in agglutinins, these substances are not transferred to any great extent by this means to the offspring.

The Substances Concerned in Agglutination.—There are two distinct substances concerned in this reaction. One substance which is present in the serum or body fluid of the infected or immune individual and other substances which are present in the microörganisms which are agglutinated. The substance in the serum, as before stated, is known as the *agglutinin*, the substance (antigen) in the bacteria or other microörganisms is known as the *agglutinogen*. When agglutinin and agglutinogen are combined together a new substance is formed which is designated as an *agglutinate*. As to the location within the bacterial cell of this agglutinogen there is some dispute. Various authorities have stated that it is present in the cell wall or on the cell wall. Others have held the view

that it is located within the cell protoplasm and in the flagella. Without doubt, in certain cases this substance is excreted from the cell into the surrounding media, as is shown by the fact that when filtrates of bacterial cultures are injected they frequently give rise to the formation of agglutinins. This agglutinogenic substance is specific and varies with the species. There are, however, very closely related substances of this character among some groups of bacteria. When these agglutinogenic substances are injected into the animal they frequently give rise to agglutinins which when combined with other members of this group will produce agglutination in low dilutions. Such a reaction and property is known as "*group agglutination*," and the agglutinins produced in such a case are known as *coagglutinins*. For example, the serum of the patient suffering from typhoid fever or of an animal immunized with *B. typhosus* will produce an agglutination first of *B. typhosus*, but in addition an agglutination of *B. coli*, *B. paracoli*, *B. paratyphosus*, *B. enteritidis*, etc. The agglutination of these last named organisms, of course, will not be active except in low dilutions, and in order to satisfactorily exclude them it is necessary to dilute the serum to a higher point. This phenomena of coagglutination is due to the fact that there are some chemical substances (agglutinogenic) within these bacteria which are common to all and which give rise to the formation of agglutinins, which are chemically similar to each other in certain respects.

Structure of Agglutinins and Agglutinogens.—According to Ehrlich's conception the agglutinins are composed of two groups, a haptophile or combining group with which it combines with the haptophore group of the agglutinogen and a zymophorous or agglutinophorous group which actually produces the agglutination. The agglutinogen is also composed of a combining group known as the haptophore group with which it combines with the haptophile of the agglutinin. It is probable that this same haptophore group will combine also with various tissue cells and give rise to the formation of agglutinins which are really free haptophile receptors of the tissue cells which have been acted upon by the agglutinogenic substance contained in the bacteria.

Agglutinoids.—It is possible by means of heat and chemicals to destroy the zymophorous group of the agglutinin, leaving only the haptophile group. Such a substance is known as an *agglutinoid*, being similar to a toxoid. A temperature of not to exceed 60° to 70° is necessary to produce this substance. Agglutinoids will combine with the agglutinogen

of the bacteria, but they will not produce a clumping or agglutinate. Occasionally in some fresh sera, substances are found which have a greater affinity for the agglutinogen of the bacteria than the agglutinins have. Such substances are designated as *proagglutinoids* and are in this respect similar to protoxoids.

The Stages of Agglutination.—There are two distinct stages of the agglutination reaction. Neither of these stages can take place unless some salts or electrolytes are present. Sodium chloride is the common salt present. The first phase of the agglutination reaction is a union between the agglutinin and the agglutinogen of the bacteria. The second phase is the actual clumping of the bacteria. It is supposed that in this last phase the zymogenic group of the agglutinin is acting. In the first phase the haptophile group of the agglutinin is combined with the haptophore group of the agglutinogen.

There are some bacteria that cannot be agglutinated, as for example, *Bact. pneumoniæ* of Friedlander, and in rare instances *B. typhosus* cannot be agglutinated. It is possible, for example, to grow *B. typhosus* at a temperature of 42° and cause it to lose its power of producing agglutinins. Bacteria may also be modified chemically so that they will lose the power to produce agglutinins.

Agglutinins bear no relationship to bactericidal substances, antitoxins, opsonins, or any of the other antibodies. They are of use in the determination of species of bacteria when a known agglutinating serum is at hand, and they are also of use in determining the cause of infections where a known culture or agglutinogenic substance is at hand. The agglutination reaction is used in the diagnosis of typhoid fever, paratyphoid fever, glanders, and dysentery.

Hemoagglutinins.—Agglutinating substances are sometimes produced for red blood corpuscles when these bodies are used in the immunization of an animal. Such agglutinins when combined with the corpuscles produces a clumping which is known as hemoagglutination. The mechanism of the reaction is the same as that of bacterial agglutinins. It is possible that hemoagglutination is one important factor in the production of agglutination thrombi in certain infectious diseases.

PRECIPITINS.—Another group of substances, which are antibodies, are produced through the processes of immunization which have not been definitely connected with the phenomena of immunity. These substances are known as the *precipitins*. Precipitins may be produced for the protein

substances of most bacterial cells and a large variety of other plant and animal cells and constituents, such as blood serum, milk and grains. They were first demonstrated in 1897 by Kraus, who noted that the bouillon filtrates of cultures of *B. typhosus*, *Bact. pestis*, and *Msp. comma* would cause precipitates when mixed with the antiserum taken from cases of these diseases. The precipitin reaction is definite and specific. The protein substance used in immunization is the only one which is precipitated when the antiserum is added. To the protein substance which produces the precipitins the name *precipitinogen* is applied. To that substance in the blood serum and body fluids of the immunized animal the name *precipitin* is applied. The combination between the precipitinogen and the precipitin forms a new chemical substance known as a *precipitate*. Precipitin may be formed in various parts of the body, for example, in the parenchymatous cells of the organs and by the leucocytes. *Bact. diphtheriæ* will not act as a precipitinogen and will not produce precipitins. This is practically the only bacterium which will not yield these antibodies.

Normal Precipitins.—Precipitins for alien blood serums have been found in the organs and blood of seemingly normal animals. Normal precipitins for bacterial proteins have not been demonstrated to a certainty.

Mechanism of the Formation of Precipitins.—The mechanism of the formation of precipitins is similar to that of other antibodies. When the precipitinogen is injected into the body of an animal, it combines with certain of the body cells, occupying receptors which otherwise would be used for the taking up of food products. As a result of this the cells produce new receptors and the number of these more than compensates for the ones already utilized. They are thrown off into the body fluids and form the precipitins. It is supposed that the precipitinogen contains haptophore receptors which combine with the haptophile receptors of the cells. When these haptophile receptors are regenerated and produced in excess, as before stated, they are thrown off into the body fluids and are really what we know as precipitins. Precipitins are produced principally for widely different or heterologous substances or sera (*heteroprecipitins.*)

Autoprecipitins and Isoprecipitins.—It has been demonstrated that animals will not produce precipitins for their own protein substances. For example, if an animal is bled and injected with his own blood serum an antibody will not be produced. Therefore, *autoprecipitins* do not

occur. Again, it has been shown that only in rare instances animals do produce precipitins for members of the same species. For example, if an animal, such as a goat, is bled and the serum injected into another goat, it is only in rare cases that the second goat will produce an antibody which is capable of producing precipitation of the proteins in the first goat's serum. Such precipitins are known as *isoprecipitins* and occur only in a very small per cent of cases and with no regularity.

The Phenomenon of Specific Inhibition.—When precipitins are heated to low temperatures (50° to 60°) or are subjected to the action of light or certain chemicals, their power to produce a precipitate when combined with a precipitinogen is destroyed. The precipitin which has been heated becomes a *precipitoid* similar to an agglutinoid or a toxoid. Their ability to combine with the precipitinogen still remains. It is possible, therefore, for precipitoids to combine with all the available precipitinogen so that when fresh precipitin is added no precipitate will occur. This is known as *specific inhibition* and sometimes leads to very confusing findings in the study of these immune bodies.

Antiprecipitins.—When an animal has produced a precipitin in its serum due to the injection of the antigenous substance which in this instance is known as the precipitinogen, this precipitin, which is a definite antibody, may be used for the immunization of another animal and an *antiprecipitin* produced; that is, a body which will combine with the precipitin in such a way as to prevent precipitation when this substance is combined with the precipitinogen. This is then, in fact, an *antiantibody* and is one of the few examples we have in immune reactions of such substances. The antiantibody is the boundary for antibody formation.

The Precipitinogen.—As before stated, the precipitinogen is any protein substance which will cause the formation of precipitins. Certain of the precipitinogens are composed of two groups, one which is thermostable and another which is thermolabile. Therefore, when these precipitinogens are heated and this thermolabile substance destroyed there results a body which is exactly analogous to the precipitoid produced by heating the precipitin. Some bodies are known as the *precipitoids of the precipitinogen* in distinction from the *precipitoids of the precipitin.* These precipitoids retain their power to combine with precipitin, but no precipitate results on such combination.

The Precipitate.—When precipitin and precipitinogen combine it requires some little time before precipitation occurs. This is dependent

upon the temperature (37° best) and certain other factors. The presence of the trace of organic acids materially facilitate this reaction. Furthermore, the reaction will not take place without the presence of certain electrolytes or salts.

Coprecipitins.—The phenomena of "group precipitation" does not occur as often as "group agglutination." The bacterial precipitins are very markedly specific but some of the blood precipitins are not so specific. For example, in a case where two rabbits have been immunized, one with the blood serum of man and the other with the blood serum of the monkey, it is found that the serum of the rabbit immunized to human blood serum will precipitate monkey blood serum to a less degree, of course, than human serum. This is due to the fact that there are certain substances specific to this phenomenon in common in the blood serum of the monkey and man. There are other rare instances of coprecipitins which will not be discussed

The Forensic Use of Precipitins.—The precipitins on account of their great specificity are of use in the identification of various albuminous substances. They have been used, for example, in the identification of bloods. Before the knowledge of the precipitins was at hand, the only means of determining one blood from another was by means of the microscope in examining the corpuscles. If the corpuscles were in a good condition, it was possible to differentiate between a mammalian and fowl blood, on account of the nucleation of the corpuscles of the latter. By the use of the spectroscope it was possible to determining whether a particular stain was blood or not. When it came to determine the exact species from which the blood came it was impossible. By means of the precipitins this can be done. For example, taken a stain which is supposed to be blood, this is carefully dissolved out in 0.85 per cent salt solution and placed in a sterile tube. A series of animals such as rabbits have been immunized to the various known blood sera, and after immunization their sera are drawn off. These sera contain the precipitins for the various sera and corpuscles used in immunization. These precipitins are combined separately in small test-tubes with the salt solution preparation of the blood in question. A precipitate occurs when the corresponding precipitating serum is added. It is necessary, of course, to place these preparations in the incubator at 37°. By this method all types of mammalian blood may be separated from each other with the possible exception, as before stated, of monkey and

human blood. In this instance it is necessary to make careful comparisons in order to determine the concentration of the precipitins. The precipitins may also be used in the identification of various meats and other albuminous substances such as eggs.

In some ways the precipitins resemble colloids and it has been shown that inorganic colloidal substances such as ferric hydroxide, etc., when in aqueous solution, may be precipitated by the addition of certain electrolytic salts. The precipitation occurs in this instance in a very similar manner to that of the organic precipitins.

The Theories of Immunity.

Various theories have been proposed which attempt to account for the resistance naturally present in animals, and the resistance which may be artificially produced. One of the first theories proposed was the so-called *noxious retention theory* which held the view that in natural immunity there were natural noxious substances present in the body which prevented the growth of the infectious microörganisms. In acquired immunity it was supposed that, as the result of an infection, specific noxious substances were produced and consequently new infecting microörganisms of the same species as those producing the original infection were unable to grow. This theory has long been discarded. Another theory, for a time prominent, was known as the *exhaustion theory*. It was conceived that natural immunity was due to the fact that the body tissues did not possess the necessary food products for the invading microörganisms and that in acquired immunity these necessary food products were exhausted completely so that when a second infection was attempted none could possibly occur. This theory has also been discarded.

One of the most prominent theories is the one which has been held recently, with some modifications, namely, the *chemical side-chain theory* of Ehrlich. It is claimed that cells are made up of definite chemical substances which possess chemical side chains which are open for chemical combination with other substances. It is by means of these chemical side chains that food products are absorbed by the cells. Furthermore, it is by means of these chemical side chains that toxins and various poisons are absorbed by the cell. It seems to have been clearly demonstrated that as a result of the absorption of certain cells of the body of toxic substances, particularly bacterial toxins, that the cells

are stimulated and produce or open up an excess of these chemical side chains for combination. It is conceived that if enough toxin is assimilated by the cells that these chemical side chains, which are definite chemical substances, will be split off from the original cell compound and escape into the circulation. It is these escaped chemical side chains which constitute the antitoxin, bactericidal substance, agglutinins, precipitins, and opsonins. In the case of antitoxins, they possess a maximum affinity for the toxin and will combine with the toxin much more readily than the toxin will combine with the remaining chemical side chains on the original cell compound. In the case of bactericidal substances they will combine with the bacteria and destroy them and liberate in this way the endotoxins which may subsequently combine with antiendotoxin (?) or tissue cells. It may be here stated that inasmuch as no antiendotoxins are ever produced, that the presence of bactericidal substances in a large per cent of instances is a detrimental factor. The production of antiendotoxins by some method or other is extremely desirable. Inasmuch as the majority of our diseases are due to bacteria-producing endotoxin, such a product would be of immense value in combating these infections. The chemical theory of Ehrlich explains many features of the phenomena of immunity. This theory has been the basis of nearly all of the preceding discussions on the various antibodies.

Metchnikoff suggested what may be called a *phagocytic theory* of immunity. According to his ideas and those belonging to his school, the phagocytes, and principally the mononuclear and polymorphonuclear leucocytes, are concerned in immunity. He explains natural immunity to toxins on the basis of an increased absorptive power on the part of these cells for toxins. He ascribes natural antibacterial immunity to an increased power of phagocytosis for the invading microorganism. He conceived that in acquired immunity to toxins these cells develop, as the result of an infection, an increased power of absorption of toxin and the production of antitoxin, and acquired immunity to bacteria-producing endotoxins is due to the increased power of the phagocytes to ingest and digest invading microörganisms.

We find the best explanation for the phenomena of immunity in both the theories of Ehrlich and Metchnikoff. Undoubtedly certain forms or types of immunity are due to definite chemical substances known as antitoxins, bactericidal substances, etc., while other types are due to the activity of the phagocytes.

CHAPTER III.

MICROBIAL DISEASES OF MAN AND ANIMALS.

Diseases Caused by Molds* and Yeasts.

The diseases produced by fungi in higher animals are mostly localized infections of the skin (dermatomycoses), of the mouth and throat (thrush), and of the lungs and air passages (pneumomycoses). In insects, one large series of forms, the *Laboulbeniales*, produce local affections only; many other forms from widely different groups are destructive to particular insects.

Pneumomycosis.†

Aspergillosis.—The fungus diseases of the lungs and air cells of birds is quite uniformly attributed to *Aspergillus fumigatus* which is widely distributed upon feed and grains as well. The agency of this species in causing disease is well established. It grows best at blood-heat. Inoculation experiments have reproduced the disease. Isolated cases are recorded where the same organism is regarded as the cause of disease in horses or cattle and even man, but not proved. Other species of *Aspergillus, A. flavus, A. nidulans, A. niger*, have been listed among pathogenic forms from their presence at times in diseased tissue. Whether these species are ever a primary cause of disease is doubtful.

Secondary Infections.—Spores of any species of fungus found in the locality may find lodgment in wounds, orifices open to the outside, such as the external ear or the air passages. Many of these spores will germinate in such situations. If favored by dirt, pus, mucus, or existing pathological condition the resulting growth in some species develops into a secondary infection; most species lack entirely the power to produce disease. The appearance of molds, especially species of *Mucor, Penicillium*, and *Aspergillus*, in such situations has been frequently reported in literature. In very large measure at least such presence may he re-

*Arranged generically as far as possible.

† Prepared by Charles Thom.

garded as evidence of lack of care, cleanliness, of even ordinary precautions when the infection involves man.

THRUSH.*

The parasite of thrush, *Oidium albicans* Robin, (*Saccharomyces albicans*, Reiss), in culture produces a scanty mycelium, submerged in the

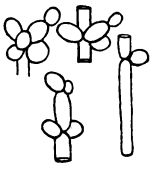


FIG. 95.—*Oidium albicans*, from a culture obtained from Kral.

substratum, which branches monopodially. The tendency to budding and to the entire suppression of the mycelium leads some to regard this form as a yeast (Fig. 95). It attacks the mucous membrane of the mouth

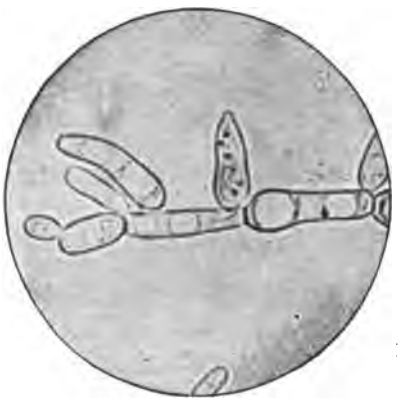


FIG. 96.—*Oidium albicans*. (*Kohle and Wassermann.*)

and throat in young animals only, producing vesicles, then white membranous patches composed of the mycelium of the fungus (Fig. 96). It is to be recognized in such cases by microscopical examination. The same disease affects children and is found in fowls, calves, and colts.

* Prepared by Charles Thom.

DERMATOMYCOSES.*

The molds which cause skin diseases form a small group, with relationships to the commoner forms of fungi very ill-defined. They produce a vegetative mycelium within the tissues of the host with fertile branches which bear conidia but indicate little as to their group relationships among fungi. Certain of these diseases have been carefully studied, mostly from the pathological side.

BARBER'S ITCH, RINGWORM, HERPES TONSURANS, TRICHOMYCOSIS.—The disease due to *Trichophyton tonsurans* (Fig. 97), Malm, has received

FIG. 97.—*Trichophyton tonsurans.* (*After Hyde, from Adami and Nicholls.*)

many names in different languages. It attacks man and domestic animals, the ox, horse, dog, cat, sheep, hog, probably other animals as well. It is characterized by the formation of circular patches from which eventually the hairs fall. These patches enlarge radially and fuse into large areas covered with crusts with more or less discharge in the center. The fungus is recognized microscopically by examination of hairs pulled from the growing edge of the infection. The hyphæ penetrate the layers of the skin and especially surround the roots of the hairs which, when first affected, stand stiff and straight.

* Prepared by Charles Thom.

The appearances of the disease differ in the various species of infected animals, as also does the length of time it continues. The disease does not affect the general health greatly, since it primarily attacks the drier and more horn-like portions of the skin, but becomes conspicuous by the falling of the hair and by the scabs or crusts with accompanying itching and discomfort. Other species of the same genus have been described which produce infected areas differing in detail but similar in their general characters.

FAVUS.—Favus is caused by *Achorion schönleinii*, Remak, and affects man, cats, dogs, mice, rabbits and fowls, and many wild animals. This is characterized by crusts, thickened at the edges and somewhat cup-shaped in center, composed of the mycelium of the mold cemented together into masses by glairy substance. Below, these crusts are in contact with the true skin. The fungus penetrates especially into the hair-follicles and hairs themselves, which later are shed. It attacks different species of animals with varying symptoms, but produces more serious lesions than those of *Trichophyton*. Favus is especially serious as it attacks man. Efforts to show that this fungus is merely a parasitic form of some species of higher fungi have failed. The diseased conditions have become so well defined and are reproduced so uniformly as to indicate a fixed habit in the organisms, whatever its source or relationship.

MISCELLANEOUS FUNGUS DISEASES.*

SAPROLEGNIACEÆ AND ENTOMOPHTHORACEÆ.*—Some of the *Saprolegnias* (all water fungi) form conspicuous masses of mycelium around dead insects in stagnant water. Certain other species (*Achlya* sp.) cause disease and death of fishes. The *Entomophthoraceæ* are parasites of insects on land. One of these, *Empusa muscæ*, destroys the common house-fly, which, after death from this disease, is found attached by its mouth parts to windows or woodwork.

ENTOMOGENOUS FUNGI.*—The practical usefulness of some of these species, notably *Sporotrichum globuliferum*, as a chinch-bug disease, has been studied carefully. While the work was markedly successful in causing an epidemic disease when conditions favored it, dependence upon particular conditions was so complete that the production of the disease as an effective destroyer of pests failed. Similar results have attended

* Prepared by Charles Thom.

the effort to use other fungi as insect-destroyers. The conditions which make possible their development in epidemic form only occur occasionally. These conditions in themselves are, as a rule, very unfavorable to insects. Under other climatic conditions, these diseases appear only as isolated cases, negligible in their effect upon the insect population, no matter how carefully the inoculating material is spread by man.

ACTINOMYCOSIS.*

Actinomyces bovis.†

This is a rather common disease of domestic animals, especially cattle. It prevails in Europe, North and South America, and is known by various names as lumpy jaw and wooden tongue. Cattle are most commonly affected, but humans, horses, sheep, and dogs are susceptible. *Actinomyces* produces a local disease which never spreads widely or rapidly.

Actinomycosis is to be considered as an infectious disease which spreads by inoculation.

The disease produced by this microörganism usually runs a chronic course and is distinguished especially by enlargement of affected parts, by hardening of the tongue, and by suppuration. The latter is one of the most constant and conspicuous characteristics. Head parts, including the facial bones, are commonly affected; lungs and various other internal organs and even the vertebræ may be involved.

The extent of injury done by this fungus depends on the location and size of the involved area. Usually the most conspicuous injury is impaired nutrition.

There is probably but little risk to human health from actinomycosis in cattle as parts of the carcass most commonly affected are not eaten and edible parts are usually cooked. It is generally considered that sound portions of carcasses which do not show generalized disease are fit for human food purposes.

There are apparently several varieties of *Actinomyces* all of which are recognized for the present as *Actinomyces bovis.*

The varieties of *Actinomyces* are to be regarded as members of a very complicated group of microörganisms higher than bacteria and are

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

† *Actinomyces bovis* has been classified by Frost (page 55) as a species of bacteria, but, because of many features, it is here inserted with the organisms strictly belonging to molds and yeasts.—*Ed.*

generally spoken of as fungi. *Antinomyces bovis* is commonly known as the ray-fungus (Fig. 98). Its relation to the disease of actinomycosis is probably specific but it is frequently aided by pus producing bacteria.

It is believed that the *Actinomyces* vegetate on various grasses, especially wild barley, and that infection occurs by inoculation with the awns and barbs of such grasses through the mucous membrane of the mouth or other portions of the alimentary tract.

Infection by inoculation is the most common method of introducing the disease; but infection by inhalation evidently occurs in some cases.

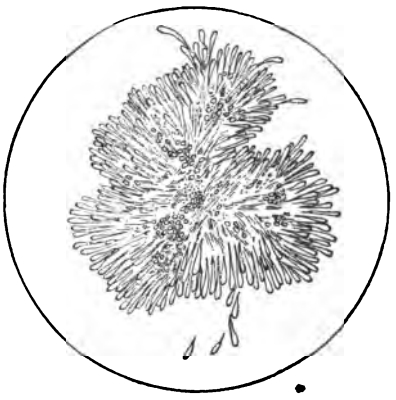


FIG. 98.—*Actinomyces bovis.* The ray-fungus from cow. (Diagrammatic.) (*After Williams.*)

It seems probable that some special stage of development for the *Actinomyces* is necessary either within the diseased animal body or upon some plants, in order that it may be able to infect animal bodies, for direct inoculation by pus has usually given negative results. Inoculation by bits of diseased tissue occasionally gives positive results.

It is evidently not a producer of active toxins for the disease disturbances are apparently due to harmful growth in the tissues and to secondary infection.

Suppuration is one of the conspicuous features as is also the development of much new granulation tissue which tends to degenerate at the center. Soft organs affected by this parasite show a tendency to multiple abscesses.

Actinomyces bovis grows rapidly on a variety of laboratory media. On gylcerin agar the colonies develop into transparent drop-like bodies in four or five days at 37°. Old colonies become white or yellowish with a powdery surface. The cultural and other peculiarities vary much and according to the variety under observation. Some varieties appear distinctly aerobic and others anaerobic. As a rule it liquefies gelatin growing in spherical masses which settle to the bottom of the liquid. Filaments appear in artificial growth which are very long and slender, and about 6μ in diameter. They show true branching, but have no septa (Fig. 99). The young colony is a loose mass of filaments; older colonies become dense and felted. Rod-shaped and spherical forms appear in artificial cultures, and some filaments develop conidia.

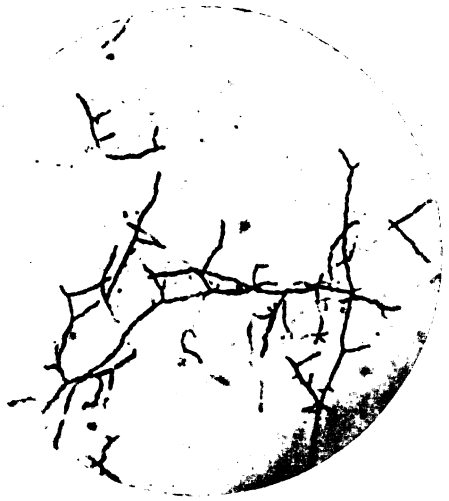


FIG. 99.—Actinomycosis. *Actinomyces bovis*. Preparation from a pure culture. × 1000. (*After Williams.*)

Stains easily. Tissue section stained with carmine followed by Gram's method gives good results, the thread showing dark and clubs red. Carmine followed by Weigert gives a beautiful stain. May be recognized as visible granules found floating in the pus in case of suppuration, or embedded in tissue. These granules vary in color; some are clear or yellow; others are quite dark. The colony as it appears in tissue section or pus smear consists of a rosette arrangement. The central portion of the colony is a dense mass of mycelium and spherical bodies. From this felted central mass, there extend rays or club-like bodies. Club-shaped enlargements at the ends of filaments frequently appear and are regarded as a distinguishing characteristic of *Actinomyces*. This organism is usually destroyed at 75° for thirty minutes. Final diagnosis must rest upon actual demonstration under the microscope which is not difficult. The granular masses may be washed in normal salt solution; and examined unstained, or stained in diluted carbol fuchsin.

Escape from the diseased body is usually in pus discharged from actinomycotic abscesses. In case of open lung or intestinal lesions it may be discharged through the trachea or intestines.

Very little is known concerning the disseminating agents except that the sharp awns of barley and some similar bodies from other wild grasses have been found carrying actinomycotic infection. There appears good reason for believing that such awns frequently serve to spread the disease. Actinomycotic pus scattered over fodder, mangers, and feed racks probably serves indirectly as a source of dissemination.

Actinomycosis is not a disease of rapid or extensive dissemination. Control work is usually confined to isolation, to proper disposition of diseased animals and to suitable disinfection. It is recognized in sanitary legislation that very many actinomycotic carcasses are fit for food purposes and should not be condemned.

ACTINOBACILLOSIS.—Actinobacillosis is probably to be distinguished from actinomycosis. It is very similar in subjects affected, in history and clinical evidence, but apparently different as to specific cause. The cause of actinobacillosis seems to be a bacterium found also in rosette-like masses resembling those of *Actinomyces*.

MYCETOMA (MADURA FOOT).*

This disease is endemic in India, especially Madura, and is found in other warm countries.

It is a chronic inflammatory process found most commonly in the foot, occasionally in the hand but very rarely elsewhere. It is characterized by swelling and irregular deformities of the part with the occurrence of sinuses whence there is a purulent discharge containing granules suggesting those of actinomycosis. These granules may be whitish, yellowish, reddish, or black in color.

The causative organism is generally regarded as a fungus. It is not unlikely that some cases of the disease may be confused with actinomycosis. Several different molds have been described, some of which have been classed as *Aspergilli*, while others have been given new names. It is probable that, while the disease is a fairly well-marked clinical entity, the etiological agent varies in different localities.

Successful inoculation of the monkey with the white variety and of pigeons with the black variety has been recorded.

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

MYCOTIC LYMPHANGITIS.*

*Saccharomyces farciminosus.**

The disease caused by this yeast-like fungus has been called Japanese farcy, epizootic lymphangitis, and mycotic lymphangitis. This disease was first recognized in the United States in 1907. It has already been found in Pennsylvania, Iowa, California, and North Dakota.

Saccharomyces farciminosus produces a slow, chronic, contagious disease of horses and mules. Cattle appear susceptible but rarely show clinical symptoms of infection.

This *Saccharomyces* involves especially the superficial lymphatic vessels and glands; but internal organs are occasionally affected. The disease is essentially local; constitutional disturbances being slight. The disease produced is fatal in about 10 to 15 per cent of cases affected but is much more serious than these figures would indicate. Other horses that do not die are rendered useless for service, the sale value being ruined in many cases.

The lesions produced by this parasite resemble most closely the farcy form of glanders but may be easily distinguished by quite different ulcers. The pus is thick, creamy, and usually yellow, whereas the pus from the farcy buds is clear and viscid. Farcy cases respond to the mallein test; lymphangitis cases do not.

It seems to have been well established that *Saccharomyces farciminosus* is the direct cause of mycotic lymphangitis—at least of one form of it.

The *Saccharomyces* grows in the animal tissues and by its presence and products acts as a direct exciting cause of the disease. Entrance is effected through inoculation wounds which may be very superficial and very trivial, most frequently perhaps on the legs, shoulders, and neck. The incubation period varies from a few weeks to several months.

This *Saccharomyces* is distributed through lymph vessels, chiefly superficial ones, the nodules appearing first near the point of inoculation.

The tissue changes produced are infection, inflammation, and suppuration of the lymph vessels and glands. At first the lymph vessels enlarge and harden; then nodules develop under the skin along the course of the vessels. These nodules suppurate and the small abscess cavity fills up with bright red granulation tissue. The entire limb may enlarge very

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

greatly by reason of excessive connective-tissue formation, and the greatly thickened skin.

Saccharomyces farciminosus is a yeast-like fungus, ovoid in shape and 3μ to 5μ long by 2.5μ to 3.5μ broad. This fungus grows slowly under artificial conditions on agar and bouillon after inoculation with pus from an abscess. It reproduces by budding and does not stain well by common laboratory stains. Claudius' method of staining gives good results.

Cases should be isolated and stables disinfected by the free use of very strong disinfectants as this *Saccharomyces* is not easily killed by ordinary disinfecting solutions.

Another mycotic organism has more recently been reported* in the United States as causing a lymphangitis very similar clinically to the lymphangitis caused by *Saccharomyces farciminosus*. Cases supposed to have been plain cases of the *Saccharomyces* form showed on laboratory examination a *Sporothrix* acting as the direct cause. These workers* reproduced cases by inoculation and recovered an organism differing very materially from *Saccharomyces farciminosus*. The case history and lesions produced parallel very closely those produced by the *Saccharomyces*. This *Sporothrix* seems to have great vitality, remaining virulent in dried pus at a temperature of —7° for three months or more.

The same organism has been recovered from similar lesions of the human where it was apparently acting as the direct exciting cause. If this be confirmed, we have two very different organisms each capable of producing a similar mycotic lymphangitis.

DISEASES CAUSED BY BACTERIA.†

BOTRYOMYCOSIS.‡

In view of recent information, "botryomycosis" should be considered as a rather general term and as not referring to a specific bacterial disease. The name has been given to various lesions of similar character involving especially connective tissue. We have in this disease a type of closed abscesses with fibrous walls. These abscesses involve especially sub-

* Sporothrix and Epizootic Lymphangitis, Page, Frothingham, and Paige. Journal of Medical Research, Volume XXIII, No. 1. Previously reported by Shenck, Hektoen, and others for the human.

† Arranged alphabetically under each, of the following families: *Coccaceæ* (*Micrococcus*, *Streptococcus*), *Bacteriaceæ* (*Bacterium*, *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*), *Spirillaceæ* (*Microspira*).

‡ Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

cutaneous and intermuscular connective tissue. Some writers include lesions of this general character when found in various internal organs.

This disease is due to a variety of microörganisms and is probably not specific. Johné found *M. ascoformans* acting as an etiological factor. Kitt and others found micrococci which could not be distinguished from *M. pyogenes var. aureus*. Moore found a variety of pyogenic micrococci and streptococci and reports one case of an enlarged spermatic cord where hefound a fungus resembling *Actinomyces bovis*.

Body entrance is usually, perhaps always, by way of wound infection.

GONORRHŒA*.

Micrococcus gonorrhœæ.

Gonorrhœa is one of the most prevalent of the bacterial diseases and is found throughout the civilized world and is confined to the human race.

The urogenital tract is the most frequent seat of infection but orchitis, severe conjunctivitis, arthritis and endocarditis are not uncommon and a septicæmic condition may also occur. Ophthalmia neonatorum is due to this organism. The ordinary infections of the urogenital tract have an incubation period of from two to eight days. The inflamed mucous membranes give rise to more or less pain and yield a thick yellow discharge.

While the fatality due directly to *Gonococcus* infection is not high, the permanent damage of frequent recurrence renders it one of the most important diseases.

Gonorrhœa has been known from the very earliest times. In 1879 the diplococcus was pointed out by Neisser as the probable cause. Bumm in 1885 first cultivated it on coagulated human placental serum.

The microörganisms can be easily stained in the typical early discharges where it occurs in pairs and for the most part within cells (Fig. 100).

For isolation, agar media should contain human blood or blood serum or ascitic fluid, though the swine-serum-nutrose medium of Wassermann is also good. The fluid must be sterile and must be added to melted nutrient agar at about 45°. The *Gonococcus* is about 0.6μ to 0.8μ in diameter. It is usually seen in pairs; where the adjacent sides of the cocci are flattened the long diameter of the pair reaches as much as 1.6μ. Non-motile and does not form spores nor capsules. It stains readily with

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

the aniline dyes and is Gram-negative. The temperature range is 30° to 38.5° with an optimum of 37.5°. Aerobic conditions are preferred though a slight growth may be obtained anaerobically. The most favorable reaction of artificial media is said to be about 0.6 per cent acid to phenolphthalein. On serum agar or similar suitable media, medium colonies appear in twenty-four hours as fine slightly elevated, translucent or opalescent spots frequently referred to as "dew-drop" colonies. They possess a faint bluish or grayish white color with a slightly marked concentric or radial striation with a scalloped margin and finely granular center. In serum broth there may occasionally be a uniform clouding though, as a rule, there is a finely granular sediment somewhat slimy with clear fluid above. Only in exceptional cases has growth

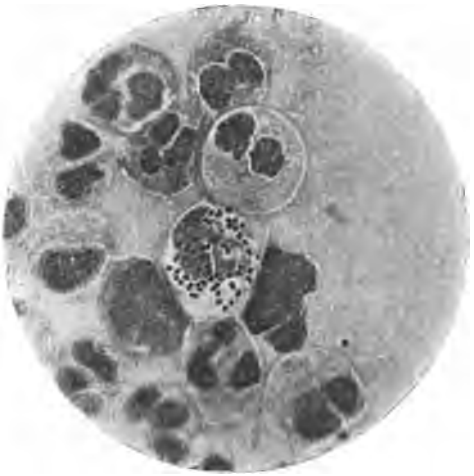


FIG. 100.—*Gonococci* and pus cells. × 1000. (*After Williams.*)

been observed in gelatin because of the unfavorable temperature. On inspissated blood serum growth may sometimes be observed as discrete pale yellowish or brownish colonies. Dextrose is changed with the development of acid but no gas. Alkali is not formed in any medium by typical strains. No gas, indol or pigment are formed. The toxins are intracellular and quite thermostable. Resistance is very slight towards external influences. Cultures undergo rapid autolytic changes and die out at room temperature, often within forty-eight hours. A temperature of 41° to 45° will kill in a few hours. To light and drying they are also very sensitive, and are rapidly killed by the ordinary disinfectants.

Animals inoculated subcutaneously or intraperitoneally show symptoms of poisoning with suppuration and necrosis locally and may succumb.

The virulence of the organism is variable. They may apparently lie

dormant or at least very slightly active in chronic conditions in one individual but set up an acute gonorrhœa when transferred to a second person.

The organism gains entrance to the urethral mucosa or conjunctiva usually by direct contact and it is doubtful if the disease could be carried by any infected article later than twenty-four hours.

The organism is found at the local lesion and has been obtained from the fluid of affected joints, and from the blood in the septicæmic cases.

A general immunity is seldom if ever developed in man following an attack of gonorrhœa. A complement-binding antibody has been demonstrated but not constantly.

Injections of cultures into animals give rise to agglutinin, bactericidal and complement-binding bodies.

The diplococcus is eliminated only in the purulent discharge.

Great importance attaches to the fact that persons may harbor the *Gonococcus* long after the acute condition has disappeared and when the coccus seems to be no longer harmful to its host. Such cases bring about untold misery and form one of the most difficult problems in both medical and social science. It has been stated that *Gonococci* have been found as late as twenty years after the primary infection.

The most extended and successful measures have been carried out in the armies and navies of various countries by the use of germicidal solutions whenever there has been any chance of exposure to infection.

Infectious Mastitis.*

Infectious mastitis or mammitis (inflammation of the udder) appears in isolated outbreaks and is serious for the individual owner and individual herd, but it never spreads widely. It may affect a large portion of the herd and cause heavy financial losses. Infectious mastitis may have serious significance for children and others consuming milk; but there is little information on this point, based on careful work.

This is to be considered as an infectious, enzoötic disease and probably not specific. There is good reason to suppose that different outbreaks have been due to several different pyogenic or pus-producing organisms.

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

We cannot consider any one species of bacteria as the specific cause. Various micrococci, streptococci, and staphylococci have been found acting as causal agents.

Recent evidence indicates that udders of apparently healthy cows may contain a variety of bacteria and that the infections may remain more or less permanent. This is in part the explanation of recurrent cases of mastitis.

In the animal body this infection is practically limited to the udder. Its discharge is either through the teat or rarely by external rupture of abscess. Transmission from cow to cow is indirect, and frequently on milkers' hands.

Entrance is usually effected by way of the milk ducts; thence into the milk cistern and to more remote parts of the gland. The infection may also come by way of the blood or lymph channels to the glands. A given case may thus be due to bacteria previously in the udder, the attack being determined by an area of lessened tissue resistance produced by injury.

In one class of cases, the gland structures are first involved; in other cases the connective tissue frame-work is first involved. In one type of this disease caused by streptococci these microörganisms attack especially the mucous membrane lining milk ducts and produce a catarrhal disease of that membrane. This is indicated by a cord-like swelling which extends along the milk canal through the teat to the milk cistern. This infection frequently leads to "blind quarter"; i. e., to closure of the teat canal and loss of the quarter; or this infection may lead to the formation of one or more pea-like nodules along the teat canal and consequent obstruction.

In many cases the lactose is decomposed by the invading organisms, leading to the formation of organic acids. These acids produce coagulation. The coagula soon obstruct the milk ducts and alveoli and the secreting cells degenerate. The invaded tissues may suppurate or even become gangrenous.

These infections are indicated by dullness, lack of appetite, fever, inflammation of the udder, and by small nodules or cord-like swelling within and lengthwise of the teat.

It must be borne in mind that the infecting microörganism is the thing to be controlled. Outbreaks of this disease frequently have origin in infected cows added to the herd. Some cows are unsuspected "car-

riers." New cows should be suspected until found free by careful examination.

Affected cows should be isolated if possible, and always milked last. Their milk should be boiled and fed to hogs, and the milkers' hand suitably disinfected.

MALTA FEVER.*

Micrococcus melitensis.

This disease is endemic along the shores of the Mediterranean, in South Africa, India, China, the Philippines, and the West Indies.

The period of incubation is usually about six to ten days.

The ordinary variety shows an intermittent or undulatory fever which may be protracted to six months or more, accompanied by constipation and general debility with various complications such as neuralgias, arthritis, orchitis, etc. Relapses occur after periods of absence of symptoms. Malignant cases are described which may be fatal in a week or ten days. The mortality is 2 per cent and no characteristic pathological changes are found.

The etiological factor is *M. melitensis* and was described by Bruce in 1887.

The organism can be obtained from the blood and in many cases from the urine. The most recently reported favorable medium for blood cultures is peptone broth with the addition of bile.

It is generally recognized as an oval coccus, although it is also described as a bacillus. Its maximum measurements have been found to be 0.8μ by 0.53μ, its minimum diameters 0.55μ by 0.4μ. It occurs singly, in pairs, in irregular groups and in short chains. (Recently the organism has been described as motile and possessing a single flagellum at the extremity of the long diameter of the oval coccus.) It stains by ordinary aniline dyes and is Gram-negative. It grows slowly at room temperature, better at body temperature and does not seem to be markedly sensitive to acidity or alkalinity of reaction. It grows aerobically. On plain agar after about forty-eight hours small whitish to yellowish colonies appear. Growth has been observed in broth in eighteen to twenty-four hours, on gelatin in eight or nine days, and the latter is not liquefied. It has been found to grow on acid potato and in acid or alkaline urine.

Human beings and animals eliminate the organisms in the urine, and the milk of goats has been found to be a prolific source of infection. With proper regulations in regard to goats' milk the disease has been greatly reduced.

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

Staphylococcic Infections.*

Boils, Abscesses, Wounds, Osteomyelitis, Pyemia, Etc.

Micrococcus pyogenes var. aureus, etc.

Infections of this order are found throughout the world and because of the association of staphylococci and streptococci with the large majority of purulent inflammations, these organisms are called the pyogenic cocci.

No specific disease is produced, but chiefly boils, circumscribed abscesses, infected wounds, osteomyelitis, pyæmia, etc. The symptoms alone will not indicate whether staphylococci or streptococci are present, but a low grade of infection with more pus and less constitutional disturbance tends to indicate the former, and staphylococci tend to pyæmia rather than to septicæmia.

Pasteur, Koch, Ogston and Rosenbach established the importance of these organisms.

Staphylococci stain readily in pus with aniline dyes, and simple sowing upon ordinary media is usually sufficient, but to secure pure cultures, plating should be resorted to.

While several different forms are found in pathological conditions, the *M. pyogenes var. aureus* is by far the most frequent, and it is described here as a type.

M. pyogenes var. aureus is a spherical coccus about .7μ to .9μ in diameter though forms .4μ to 1.2μ have been noted. On solid media the organism may be found solitary, in pairs, or in rows of three or four, but characteristically in irregular groups like bunches of grapes. In liquid media the single and paired arrangement is most frequent. No spores, no capsules and no flagella are found; the organism shows marked brownian movement, like other cocci. Gram-positive. The temperature range of growth is from about 10° to 43° with an optimum about 30°. Aerobe and facultative anaerobe. It grows readily on all routine media, preferring a reaction slightly alkaline to litmus. Growth on plain agar is rapid and abundant. After twenty-four hours there appear round grayish-white or yellowish colonies about 2 mm. in diameter, smooth and raised above the surface of the medium. Microscopically, the colonies are regular in outline and finely granular. The characteristic orange-yellow pigment may not appear until later or if already present, in twenty-four hours deepens with further growth. In broth, growth is also rapid and causes a diffuse clouding with a thin pellicle and a heavy sediment after several days. In gelatin, colonies are as on agar and sink into cup-like depressions as the medium is liquefied. Liquefaction is rapid with some strains and slower with others, and in old cultures is of a funnel or saccate type. It is

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

due to a thermolabile ferment-like substance known as gelatinase. In milk, the staphylococcus grows readily and causes coagulation sometimes early but usually in three or four days' time. On potato growth is usually abundant; it is not as moist nor as smooth as on agar and is slower. Pigment is developed usually to the highest degree and sometimes cultures appearing white on agar develop pigment on potato. On inspissated blood serum growth is usually moist and abundant. Occasionally the growth sinks slightly into the medium suggesting partial liquefaction. In dextrose, lactose and saccharose media acid is produced, but no gas. Acid is a constant product. Formic, lactic, butyric and valerianic acids have been found and probably other fatty acids occur. Some authorities state that indol is formed but negative results are the rule. Nitrites are formed by the reduction of nitrates. A characteristic odor from cultures is due probably to the presence of fatty acids. The pigment appears in aerobic cultures and is absent in anaerobic cultures. It is insoluble in water but soluble in alcohol, chloroform, ether and benzol. The toxins are largely intracellular. A thermolabile, hæmolytic substance may be found in the more virulent strains after about ten days' growth in moderately alkaline broth and can be freed by filtration through procelain filters. Another soluble toxic substance is found, causing the death of leucocytes—*leucocidin.* It is considerably less stable than the *staphylo-hæmolysin.* The staphylococci are among the most resistant of the non-spore bearing bacteria. Sometimes 60° for a full hour or even longer is necessary to kill watery suspensions; 70° is usually necessary to kill in ten minutes. If organic material is present the resistance is of course much greater. Low temperatures have little effect and it has been stated that 30 per cent have survived thirty minutes' exposure to liquid air. To direct sunlight and drying staphylococci also show considerable resistance and may be found in dried pus for several months. Resistance to germicides is also somewhat greater than that of other vegetative bacteria, and is increased especially in the presence of organic material. In watery suspensions staphylococci are killed by 1:1000 mercuric chloride in ten to fifteen minutes, by 3 per cent carbolic acid in two to ten minutes and by 5 per cent formaldehyde in the same time.

Man seems to be considerably more susceptible to staphylococcic infections than animals. Of the latter rabbits and mice and guinea-pigs are susceptible in this order.

The virulence of the organism shows considerable variation and is usually increased by successive passages through animals of the same species while remaining unaltered for animals of other species.

Subcutaneous inoculation usually results in abscess formation. Virulent cultures injected into the peritoneal cavity of animals may kill in forty-eight hours to a week or even longer with pyæmic abscesses especially in the kidneys. Malignant or ulcerative endocarditis has been experimentally produced by intravenous injection when the heart valves have been injured, chemically or mechanically. Osteomyelitis has also been experimentally produced.

In man simple rubbing of virulent cultures into the skin is often sufficient to produce a furuncle.

Upon entering the tissue the cocci are strongly chemotactic and pus inevitably results. With virulent cultures the leucocidal substance is more or less strongly active. The organism may be limited to the first abscess or by invasion of the blood stream multiple abscesses result. In these cases, which are usually fatal, the organism will be found throughout the body.

Immunization can be secured by repeated injections of cocci dead or alive in graduated doses. The sera possess slight bactericidal and agglutinating properties, and a high degree of opsonic power. The latter property is probably the most important.

The sera of immunized animals is protective only when used slightly before or along with the injection of the organisms and is consequently of little practical value. Active immunization, however, is being extensively practised particularly with the autogenous strains. Leucocyte extracts have also been successfully though not so widely used.

The prophylaxis of staphylococcic infections is the same as for other pus-producing forms.

Several other kinds of staphylococci have been found associated with pathological conditions, the most important of which are *M. pyogenes var. albus*, *M. epidermidis albus* (Welch), and *M. pyogenes var. citreus*. The first seems to be slightly pathogenic, and rarely produces severe infection. It is distinguished from the aureus by lack of pigment.

The second variety appears to be an attenuated form of the other.

The third variety is distinguished from *aureus* and *albus* only by the development of a lemon-yellow pigment.

Streptococcic Infections.*

General Septicæmia, Puerperal Septicæmia, Erysipelas, Etc.

Streptococcus pyogenes.

Streptococcic infections are endemic among all races and under all social conditions. In the days before antisepsis and our knowledge of the transmission of infectious diseases, erysipelas and puerperal septicæmia occurred in epidemics that were the scourges of surgical and lying-in hospitals.

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

When the work of Pasteur and Lister became fully comprehended such epidemics ceased to exist.

Natural streptococcic infections have been described in horses and cattle and among the laboratory animals, but as a rule such disease is much rarer in animals than in the human being.

The period of incubation is probably about one to three days.

The symptoms of septicæmia begin with a rapid rise of temperature which may reach 105° F. or even higher. Chills accompany the fever and are often severe. The pulse is rapid, irregular and weak and the respiration labored. There may be vomiting and constipation or diarrhœa. Headache is more or less severe with sometimes delirium. In cases lasting for several days the skin appears slightly jaundiced. The urine is of the usual febrile type and as a rule shows the microörganism causing the disease. Death may occur in two or three days or within a week or in milder cases may be followed by recovery.

After death from septicæmia the body tends to putrefy rapidly. The glandular organs all tend to be swollen and soft especially the spleen and parenchymatous degenerations are found to a greater or less extent. The lining membrane of the heart and vessels is blood stained, a rather characteristic feature of streptococcic septicæmia. Bronchitis and broncho-pneumonia are usually found.

Erysipelas is an inflammation of the skin, occasionally of mucous membranes, and the name is applied now only when the condition is brought about by streptococci. The inflamed area is very definitely outlined and may present blebs of a greater or less size. Oedema may be very marked where the skin covers loose tissue. Fever is present with its usual accompaniments. There may be vomiting, constipation or diarrhœa. There may be severe headaches or delirium. In fatal cases, death may occur without any apparent complication, or it may follow meningitis, pericarditis, nephritis or some other sequel. In simple uncomplicated fatal cases the liver, kidneys and spleen are swollen and soft and show degenerative changes in the gland cells.

Pasteur, Koch, Rosenbach and Fehleisen divide the earlier honors in the gradual working out of the relationships of streptococci to disease.

Blood culture in plain broth in the case of septicæmia or inoculation of plain nutrient agar from pus are practically always successful. Growth is never luxuriant on the ordinary media. Cultivation from cases

of erysipelas is less easy because most of the organisms are found at the margin of the lesion and are difficult to reach.

In exudates a stained smear will usually demonstrate the chain-forming coccus at once.

The cocci vary in size from 0.4μ to 1μ. In shape the organisms may be rounded or oval or with one aspect flattened when occurring in pairs. The chains may be long or short and a grouping into pairs is frequent even within the chain. There are no true spores developed and the organism is non-motile. Capsules are not found on the majority of streptococci. Staining the organism is easily accomplished with the ordinary aniline dyes. It is Gram-positive. The temperature range in which streptococci are capable of growing is about from 15° to 35°, the optimum temperature is about 37°. Streptococci are as a rule aerobes and facultative anaerobes. Strict anaerobic species are said to have been isolated from fæces. The reaction of media should be slightly alkaline. Acid production is a striking feature of this organism and has a decided inhibitive effect upon its growth. Concerning the action on carbohydrates this organism typically forms acid from monosaccharides, lactose, saccharose, and salicin. Gas is never produced. Nitrates are reduced by some streptococci to nitrites. The production of hydrogen sulphide is characteristic of some forms which have been grouped as *Strept. fæcalis*. No pigment is found other than the slight brownish tinge seen in some gelatin cultures. Typically actively hæmolytic. This power may be lost on cultivation. The toxic products of the streptococci have been the subject of a great deal of investigation, but few definite facts have been discovered Cultivation is usually successful on the ordinary media. On plain nutrient agar the growth is visible in eighteen to twenty-four hours as small round translucent finely granular colonies, which possess an even or notched border, and a tendency to remain discrete except when thickly sown. The center is thickened and the margins thinner. In plain nutrient broth the majority of long-chained varieties produce at the bottom and along the sides of the tube a granular deposit, or small flocculi or large flakes, leaving the remainder of the broth clear. A few long-chained varieties cloud the broth uniformly. The short-chained streptococci as a rule produce a cloudiness in the medium which remains for a number of days even though a finely granular deposit accumulates at the bottom of the tube. On plates of plain nutrient gelatin the colony formation remains the same as those on agar. In stab cultures a finely granular filiform growth appears which later may have a beaded appearance and sometimes a brownish color. The gelatin is not liquefied. Milk is a favorable medium for the growth of streptococci and a strong acidity and coagulation sometimes takes place. Growth on potato is said not to take place, but in some cases an invisible growth seems to occur. Loeffler's blood serum is also a favorable medium. Streptococci as a rule die out rapidly in cultures due to the accumulation of their own products. In pus, blood, sputum, etc., the organism may be found alive after several weeks or even months at room temperature. The thermal death-point is about 54° in ten minutes. Direct sunlight kills within a few hours, and they are readily killed by many disinfectants.

Entrance of streptococci is afforded by any break in the surface of the

body. A local suppuration may be the only result or it may be followed by a general septicæmic condition.

In erysipelas some local injury is also probably necessary as a starting-point.

Following the local establishment of streptococci sufficient toxin is elaborated to produce greater or less systemic disturbance. If a septicæmia supervenes the poisoning becomes extreme and the organisms are distributed throughout the body.

Immunity following recovery from natural streptococcic infection is very slight if any, and never of a permanent sort. Septicæmias once established are generally fatal, and erysipelas can recur frequently.

Bacterial substances, opsonins, agglutinins and precipitins have been demonstrated in immune sera, which, however, show no therapeutic success.

Streptococci are eliminated in the discharge of local infections in sputum, etc., and are then probably more virulent. Infection by contact from such sources is particularly dangerous. In anginas and streptococcic infections of the respiratory tract, the epidemiology is practically the same as for diphtheria and pneumonia. Similarly erysipelas is to be treated as a contagious disease.

In the prophylaxis of streptococcic diseases, greatest care must be shown where chances of infection by the virulent strains are possible Isolation of erysipelas is universally practised in hospitals. Similarly cases of puerperal sepsis and any local disease should be kept from contact with other puerperæ. Streptococcic pus from all sources is to be carefully destroyed.

Streptococci seem to be always present on the exposed surfaces of the body and are probably capable of giving trouble should any local lowered resistance occur. The prevention of this may be accomplished by strict antiseptic treatment of wounds.

PNEUMONIA.*

Streptococcoccus pneumoniæ.

The occurrence of a diplococcus in the large majority of cases especially of the lobar type of pneumonia, has caused this coccus to be regarded as practically specific and warrants the name of *Micrococcus pneumoniæ*,

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

Diplococcus penumoniæ, or *Pneumococcus*. As occasional cause should be mentioned *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Staphylococcus pyogenes var. aureus*, *B. coli*, *Bact. diphtheriæ*, *Bact. influenzæ*, *B. capsulatus mucosus* (pneumobacillus), *B. typhosus* and *Bact. tuberculosis*.

Pneumonia is world-wide in its distribution and is estimated to form anywhere from 1 to 7 per cent of all cases studied in internal medicine. It appears to be more frequent in regions subjected to sudden changes of temperature.

The incubation period is two or three days of rather indefinite prodromata.

The onset of the disease is marked by a chill, pain inside, and rise in temperature. The respirations become frequent. The fever as a rule runs between 102° and 105° F. for from five to ten days and then in favorable cases terminates by a sudden drop of temperature to normal within a few hours (crisis).

The most striking pathological findings are a marked congestion and œdema of the lungs following which the lung becomes solid, airless and of a dark red color, the alveoli showing, microscopically, a fibrinous exudate with large numbers of red blood cells, some leucocytes and desquamated epithelium. Thereafter the lung becomes slightly softer and is of a gray color, while microscopically the red cells degenerate and leucocytes are more and more evident. The fourth stage, resolution, is marked by the liquefaction and absorption of the contents of the alveoli and the entrance of air.

Death occurs from toxæmia or complications such as carditis, meningitis, etc. Roughly about 10 per cent of all deaths are due to pneumonia and the fatalities form about 10 per cent of the total number of cases.

The *Streptococcus pneumoniæ* was described, as found in the sputum, by C. Frankel in 1884.

A Gram-stained preparation of the sputum is sufficient to detect the diplococci but cultures are necessary for positive indentification. Some medium richer than the ordinary by the addition of blood or serum from man or animals is best, and may be inoculated from the blood and organs or from sputum and other contaminated sources by streaking or plating. Injection of sputum into white mice or rabbits will often cause a fatal septicæmia in these animals and the coccus may then be obtained in pure culture from the heart's blood. Occurs as pairs of oval or lanceolate cocci, with their contiguous surfaces somewhat flattened and the distal ends slightly pointed. From this type the organism may vary to spherical or short bacillary forms. It may occur also singly or in chains of varying length usually consisting of not more than about six or eight individ-

uals. Well developed capsules which may surround the single organism or the pairs and chains may be found in exudates or in milk and serum media. There are no spores nor flagella. The cocci stain readily with the aniline dyes and are Gram-positive. The capsule can be demonstrated by several methods of which Welch's and Hiss' are the most common. The temperature range is from 25° to 37°. It is both aerobic and anaerobic, and grows most readily in a medium slightly alkaline to phenolphthalein. Besides serum or blood, glycerin, nutrose and dextrose are found to be favorable for its growth. On agar it grows in small, rather transparent, finely granular colonies, which are larger and more opaque when serum or ascitic fluid is present. Broth is faintly and uniformly clouded. Milk is a favorable medium for most strains and typically is acidified and coagulated. On potato, growth may occur but is invisible. Gelatin can rarely be used at a temperature high enough to allow growth. When occasionally growth is obtained the medium is not liquefied. On blood serum, growth appears as small clear colonies and on the whole is better than on agar. A number of special media are described of which one of the most valuable is the inulin-serum-water medium of Hiss. It typically ferments, with the production of acid, the majority of carbohydrates, even polysaccharides as inulin. On blood agar the typical organism produces a greenish zone in the medium about the growth, but not a clear zone of hæmolysis as do most strains of streptococci. The differentiation from other streptococci is sometimes a matter of difficulty, and the following characters are of importance—the lanceolate shape, capsule formation, fermentation of inulin, absence of hæmolytic powers, agglutination in antipneumococcic sera, susceptibility to lysis by the action of bile salts. Acid is an important and characteristic product and, if allowed to accumulate, rapidly kills the organism. The toxic products appear to be closely united with the cell bodies and are only released when these are broken up. The resistance to heat is not great and its thermal death-point is 52°. Light is germicidal if the cocci are not protected in thick masses of sputum. Drying is resisted rather well in sputum or the blood of infected animals. To germicides the *Pneumococcus* is very sensitive and is killed in a few minutes by the common disinfectants in their usual strength.

The pathogenic properties of the *Pneumococcus* for animals is somewhat variable. Natural infection is not common. To artificial infection mice and rabbits have been found most susceptible, while guinea pigs, dogs, rats and cats are more resistant, and birds are practically immune probably because of their high body temperature. Mice and rabbits succumb to subcutaneous or intraperitoneal injections of virulent cocci from cultures or in sputum with the development of a septicæmic condition, and in the latter case a peritonitis. By special methods lobar pneumonia has been produced in rabbits as has also endocarditis.

Variations in virulence of the *Pneumococcus* are very marked. The virulence can be increased by passage through susceptible animals until an extremely small dose will kill a mouse. Cultures obtained from man may vary considerably in their virulence for animals.

The organism gains entrance through the respiratory mucosa and as a matter of fact appears to be a common inhabitant of these regions. However the organism may reach the lung (the lobar distribution suggests sowing by the blood stream), it is certainly frequent to find positive blood cultures during the disease—a fact which accounts for the development of such complications as meningitis, endocarditis, etc. The toxæmia probably arises from lysis of the organisms and has been shown that the autolysis of cultures in salt solution gives rise to a soluble toxic portion and an insoluble non-toxic portion.

Immunity to *Pneumococcus* infections can be shown to exist after an attack but only for a short time.

Pneumococci may be considered as inhabiting the mucous membranes of the respiratory tract in the majority of people and acquire virulence only under some special circumstances lowering the general vitality. In pneumonia and some kinds of bronchitis as above mentioned it should be remembered that sputum and mouth spray may contain large numbers of virulent organisms.

Specific therapeutic agents such as antipneumococcic sera, vaccines of dead cultures and autolysates, as well as leucocyte extracts, have been tried and all with some promising results. No one of these methods, however, has been sufficiently widely applied with success enough to warrant general adoption.

The prophylaxis of *Pneumococcus* infections lies in general hygienic measures, in the destruction of sputa and avoidance of possible infection by mouth spray, etc.

ANTHRAX.*

*Bacterium anthracis.**

Also called splenic fever or charbon; and in man, wool-sorter's disease or malignant pustule.

The disease has been known for centuries. It is thought that it was one of the plagues of Egypt, mentioned as a murrain on beasts, and boils and blains on man and beast. The first accurate characterization of the disease was made by Chabert about 1800. Pollender in 1849 and Rayer and Davaine in 1850 reported that they had seen "filiform bodies" in the blood of animals which had died of anthrax, and in 1860 Davaine

* Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

announced he had succeeded in transmitting the disease to healthy animals by inoculating them with blood from an anthrax infected animal, and asserted that these filiform bodies or bacteria were the cause of the disease. This result was attacked, and for ten years there was a fierce controversy over this idea, which was finally stilled by the convincing experiments of Robert Koch in 1876. Koch cultivated the bacterium of anthrax from the blood, showed that the inoculation of these cultures in susceptible animals produced anthrax, worked out the life history of the organism, and enunciated the cardinal requirements—which constitute the proof of the pathogenic nature of an organism, what later bacteriologists have named the rules or postulates of Koch.

FIG. 101.—*Bact. anthracis.* Showing the thread formation of colony. (*After Kolle and Wassermann from Stitt.*)

FIG. 102.—*Bact anthracis.* Spore production. (*After Migula.*)

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION.—The disease is very widespread, occurring all over the world in tropic, semitropic and temperate climates. Wherever stock are found in large numbers anthrax is usually present. The disease ravages the herds and flocks in Russia, Siberia, India, Argentina and parts of Hungary, France and Germany. Local epidemics occur constantly in England, Canada and the United States. In the delta of certain rivers the organism probably grows in the soil as in the deltas of the Mississippi and Bramaputra, and the disease is also common along the banks of many rivers (Vistula, Rhine, Seine, etc.).

The anthrax organism is a large, non-motile rod, from 5μ to 10μ long and 1μ to 1.5μ broad. In cultures it frequently forms long threads or filaments (Fig. 101). The free

ends are slightly rounded, but those in contact are quite square, and slightly larger in diameter than the middle of the cell. Involution forms are obtained by culture on potato or at temperatures of 40° to 42°. It forms oval spores without distortion of the mother cell (Fig. 102). Free oxygen is necessary for the development of these bodies, and a temperature between 18° and 41°. Spore germination is polar. By culture at 42° an asporogenous variety is formed. It stains readily with the aniline dyes and also by Gram's method. Under certain conditions a capsule may be seen. The organism is aerobic, in the body it grows as a facultative anaerobe. Its optimum temperature is 37°, minimum 12°, maximum 45°. It forms characteristic wavy and filamentous colonies on gelatin and agar, it liquefies gelatin, produces an arborescent growth in gelatin stab cultures, coagulates and peptonizes milk with an alkaline reaction. Thermal death-point of the spores in liquids is four minutes at 100°, in hot air 140° for three hours. Mercuric chloride, 1:1000, destroys the spores in a few minutes, and 4 per cent carbolic acid with hydrochloric acid 2 per cent in one hour.

Zoölogically, anthrax is the most widespread of infectious diseases; white mice, guinea-pigs, rabbits, sheep, cattle, horses and man are susceptible. Old rats are insusceptible. Von Behring, Metchnikoff and others have shown that the serum of white rats contains a lysin capable of dissolving the bacterium *in vitro*. Pigs are occasionally infected; the carnivora generally are refractory, the bear and cat being less resistant. Most birds are insusceptible, but some small birds, like the sparrow, are more susceptible. Cold-blooded animals are refractory.

Infection occurs: Through the food, giving rise to intestinal anthrax. Cattle and sheep are usually infected in this manner by spores, the bacterium being destroyed by the gastric juice. In man infection through food rarely occurs.

Through the air. Infection by inhalation through the lungs occurs in man through the medium of dust contaminated by anthrax spores, hence the name "wool-sorter's disease."

Through wounds. This method usually occurs in man and also in sheep. Cutaneous infection comes through a scratch or wound, and gives rise to a carbuncle—hence the name "malignant pustule." It occurs most frequently among employees of tanneries, wool-sorters, veterinary surgeons, and those whose occupation brings them into touch with infected animals, their hides or products.

The incubation period is a short one, even in the naturally occurring disease; inoculated laboratory animals die in twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The bacteria appear in the blood about fifteen hours after inoculation, and at death the blood simply swarms with the organism. The veins are turgid, and the blood is often very dark, and coagulates slowly.

The bacteria abound in the capillaries (Fig. 103). The spleen is enlarged and contains enormous numbers of the organisms. In the kidney the glomeruli and tubules are gorged with the bacteria, which pass into the urine. The bacteria can pass into the milk of females in lactation. The bacteria are also numerous in the liver, lungs and mesentery, but few are found in the muscles.

Post-mortem examination of subcutaneously inoculated laboratory animals shows subcutaneous œdema and enlarged spleen.

The organism is eliminated from the body in urine, fæces, mucous discharges, etc. Pastures become infected from burying anthrax carcasses

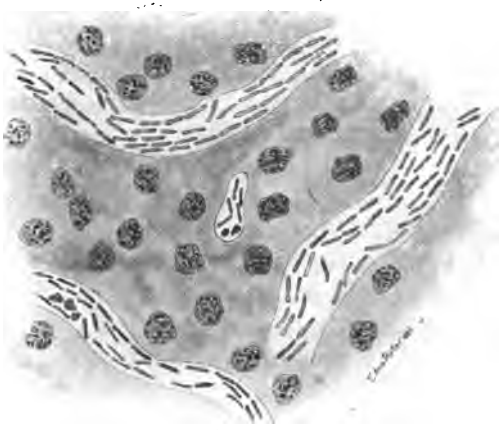


FIG. 103.—Anthrax. The organisms of anthrax in the capillaries of the liver of a mouse. (*After Williams.*)

which have been opened or have been skinned, thus favoring the formation of spores. If buried too near the surface, the rise of the ground water, or the castings of earth worms, bring spores to the surface and on to the herbage, where they may be ingested by grazing animals. Tanneries using anthrax-infected hides may be the cause of distributing the organism by means of effluent water which has been used for steeping hides. Many such cases have been traced in Delaware, Wisconsin and in Ontario. Hay from an infected pasture may be transported to a distant farm, and cause an outbreak of the disease. In Brazil, vultures feeding on anthrax carcasses disseminate the spores by means of their

excrement, and thus spread the disease. Blood-sucking flies may also be instrumental in transferring the bacterium from one animal to another.

Season is a contributing factor. In years in which the spring floods have been very high, followed by a hot dry season, anthrax is most prevalent.

There are a few preliminary symptoms; there is usually sudden loss of appetite, trembling and convulsive movements. Often blood is seen in urine or fæces or discharged from the nose. The mucous membranes are often bluish in color, and boils or pustules may occur on various parts of the body. Death in cattle occurs in two to five days and in sheep in twenty-four to thirty-six hours. The mortality is high and intestinal cases are fatal in 80 to 90 per cent of the animals attacked.

The usual post-mortem appearances are enlargement of the spleen, blood thick and tarry, bloody extravasations in the muscles and organs, and bloody fluids escaping from mouth, nostrils or anus.

In anthrax-infected districts vaccination should be used. The vaccines are prepared by cultivating the bacterium at a high temperature—42° to 43°—thus forming an asporogenous race, according to methods devised by Pasteur in 1881 (p. 476). Two vaccines are often used, the first of very low virulence, the second more virulent. Between 1882 and 1907, 8,000,000 sheep and 1,300,000 cattle have been vaccinated in France against anthrax, with excellent results. Vaccination by toxin has been advocated by Toussiant, Hawkin, Marmier and others, but this method has not had the success of that described above.

For treatment of the disease in man, Sclavo's serum has been of considerable benefit. This serum is obtained from the sheep or ass. The animals first receive the two vaccines of Pasteur, then more virulent cultures in gradually increasing doses. A serum is then obtained which in a dose of 2 c.c. or less protects a rabbit against a lethal dose of the anthrax organism.

Animals dead of anthrax should never be opened or skinned. If doubt exists as to the nature of the disease, an ear may be cut off and sent to to a laboratory for examination. Anthrax-infected carcasses may be either burned or buried at a depth of 1.8 M. (6 feet), and covered with quick-lime, and as an extra precaution the burial ground may be fenced off. The prime necessity is to prevent the formation of spores, as it has been shown experimentally that they remain in this condition for eighteen years and produce the disease when inoculated. Soiled litter, forage

and the excretions of animals dead of the disease should be collected and burned.

The stalls, stables, implements and anything that has been in contact with the diseased animals should be disinfected by burning, boiling or the use of some disinfectant like 5 per cent carbolic acid.

Bacillary White Diarrhœa of Young Chicks.*

Bacterium pullorum.

The epidemic type of diarrhœa which is characterized in part by a whitish diarrhœal discharge, and which is now known as "bacillary white diarrhœa," is caused by a bacterium which belongs to the colon-typhoid group of bacteria. It has many points in common with the typhoid bacillus. It may be cultivated easily on the ordinary laboratory media, but its growth on slant or plate agar is delicate, and very much like that of the *Strept. pyogenes*. This peculiar appearance on agar is a great aid in the identification of the bacterium and hence in the diagnosis of the disease.

This organism, which has been named *Bact. pullorum*, is present in the intestine, liver, lung, spleen, kidney, heart, and unabsorbed yolk of chicks suffering with the disease in question. It is to be obtained most easily from the liver and yolk, when the latter is present.

Feeding experiments conducted on a large scale demonstrated that the disease may be transmitted to young chicks under three days old through infected food and drinking water. Furthermore, chicks may be infected with *Bact. pullorum* before hatching. These two facts furnish an easy explanation as to the rapid spread of the infection among chicks, many of which were normal at the time of hatching.

The mother hen is the source of infection in the egg. The examination of hens from which it was almost impossible to raise chicks, on account of white diarrhœa, revealed the fact that the ovaries were infected with *Bact. pullorum*. The diseased ova were very abnormal. They were discolored, misshapen, and of all degrees of consistency. Eggs from these hens have been found to contain the specific bacterium in question in all stages of incubation. Later, a method was devised for identifying the bacterium in fresh eggs which came from infected flocks. Numerous eggs were tested and the organism was observed in many

* Prepared by L. F. Rettger.

of them. Thus a satisfactory method is at hand for determining, without injury to the birds, which hens are infected with *Bact. pullorum*, and consequently are the source of infection, if their eggs are used for hatching purposes.

Quite recently a pullet which was less than eight months old, and which was one of the survivors of an infected flock, showed the presence of the specific bacterium in the ovary. This discovery completed the cycle of infection. The laying hen is a "bacterium-carrier." Her eggs harbor the bacteria, and the chicks which are hatched emerge with the organism planted within them. These chicks are the source of infection of other chicks which are normal at the time of hatching. The disease becomes epidemic. The female chicks which survive carry the infection in their body until they are mature laying hens, and the same cycle is begun again, unless intelligent steps are taken to eradicate the infection by methods which are most obvious.

Chicken Cholera.*

Bacterium choleræ gallinarum.

The bacterium causing this disease was first noticed by Perroncito and Toussaint; later, in 1880, it was described by Pasteur, and was the first organism in which the French savant succeeded in attenuating the virulence and the first disease, for which a vaccine made from attenuated organisms was prepared. Koch in 1878 described an organism of similar pathogenicity as the bacterium of rabbit septicæmia and in 1886 the term hemorrhagic septicæmia was given by Hueppe to a number of infectious diseases of the lower animals in which hemorrhagic spots were found in the tissues and internal organs. In 1900 Lignières monographed these bacteria, and named them as a genus, *Pasteurellose*, the specific name given depending on the animal for which it was most pathogenic. Thus he distinguished avian, porcine, ovine, bovine, equine and canine *Pasteurelloses*.

The specific characters of this group are small ovoid bacteria, often showing bipolar staining when treated with the aniline dyes, non-motile, no spores, Gram-negative, polymorphic, not liquefying gelatin, no visible growth on naturally acid potato, milk unchanged, no indol production, generally aerobic but also a facultative anaerobe, virulence changeable, but usually very pronounced.

* Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

The bacterium of fowl cholera, *Bact. choleræ gallinarum*, or avian *Pasteurellose*, is from 0.5μ to 1.25μ long and 0.25μ to 0.40μ broad. It develops best at 37°, and very slowly at 20°. It loses its virulence in cultures very quickly, and it succumbs readily to desiccation.

The disease is of frequent occurrence in Europe, but not often seen in North America but some outbreaks have been reported in the United States and Canada. Unfortunately it has been confused by poultrymen with any disease characterized by excessive diarrhœa. The symptoms first noticed are the yellow color of droppings soiling the cloacal feathers, then diarrhœa sets in, the character of the discharge varying, being at times a fluid greenish mass, or a brown-red mucus, or a viscous transparent and frothy fluid. The bird becomes uneasy, drinks copiously and with a rise in temperature to 42° to 44° the bird becomes drowsy and death follows. The period between the first noticeable symptoms and death varies from one to three days. Chronic cases sometimes occur and in these the bacterium is found with difficulty. The birds become infected by way of the digestive tract, from eating and picking up material infected by the discharges of diseased birds.

Post-mortem indications are blackened combs, congestion of the blood-vessels in the organs and intestines, and punctiform or large hemorrhages of the duodenum, intestines and heart. The bacteria are numerous in the blood, the pulp of all organs, and in the intestinal contents. It is a true septicæmia.

If the disease breaks out in epidemic form the best and quickest method of getting rid of it is to kill off all the fowls, disinfect the houses, and dig or plough up the poultry runs, and leave them two weeks before re-stocking.

Chronic Bacterial Enteritis.*

Bacterium. (?)

The disease produced by this bacterium has been demonstrated in Germany, Belgium, Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, and perhaps other European countries. It is known by various names, as *Johne's disease, chronic bacterial dysentery*, and *chronic bacterial enteritis.*

This bacterium produces a chronic infectious disease of cattle involving especially the intestinal mucous membrane. Other animals do not

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

seem susceptible. The disease produced is usually fatal. Usually the most conspicuous general symptom is unthrift in spite of good appetite and good food.

This microörganism is a rod-shaped bacterium from 2μ to 3μ long and about 0.5μ broad and is strongly acid-fast. The production of active toxins is to be presumed since the amount of disturbance is frequently out of all proportion to the lesions found on examination post mortem.

The bacteria are present in the fæces, intestinal mucosa, and submucosa, most frequently of the small intestines. The large intestines may be involved later.

This microörganism produces chronic, inflammatory changes of the intestinal mucous membrane, the whole intestinal wall becoming greatly thickened.

This bacterium resembles closely avian tubercle bacteria, but may be distinguished by the fact that the avian tubercle bacterium is rather easily grown on artificial media. This organism does not have the same pathogenic peculiarities as the avian tubercle bacterium. It seems well demonstrated that cases of *chronic bacterial enteritis* do not react to avian tuberculin; but this does not exclude identity.

So far as known the bacterium is eliminated in the manure of affected cattle and disseminated in this way. Wider dissemination is made by diseased animals moving from place to place.

The most important considerations in controlling this disease are careful disposition of contaminated manure and isolation of suspected animals. The manure should be used only where it can not serve to spread disease to other cattle. Sick animals should be carefully isolated and premises thoroughly disinfected.

Contagious Abortion of Domestic Animals.*

Bacterium abortus.

The premature discharge of the products of conception from the uterus is a not infrequent occurrence among domestic animals, and doubtless various factors may from time to time operate in its causation. Injury, excessive fermentable food, or poisonous food may at times produce this result. For a long time, however, practical husbandmen

* Prepared by W. J. MacNeal.

have recognized an epizoötic form or a contagious abortion, a definite transmissible disease of which the loss of the fœtus is the most prominent characteristic. This disease appears to be generally distributed in all agricultural communities. Cows, especially, are affected, but a somewhat similar if not identical disease also occurs in other domestic animals.

In 1897 Bernhard Bang discovered in the uterine exudate of a cow, slaughtered during an attack of this disease before the abortion had occurred, a small bacterium which he was able to grow in pure culture, and, by inoculating pure cultures of this organism, he produced the disease in cows, sheep, goats and rabbits.

The microbe is a short non-motile rod, staining with moderate ease, and decolorized by Gram's method. It does not form spores but the vegetative forms are fairly resistant to drying and may, perhaps, live for some weeks under ordinary conditions in pastures and stables. Its artificial culture requires special technic because of its peculiar oxygen requirement. The bacterium usually fails to grow in the presence of the atmospheric air or under anaerobic conditions. It requires for its development a partial pressure of oxygen somewhat less than that of the atmosphere. When inoculated into deep serum-gelatin-agar tubes and incubated in the air, the colonies develop only in a particular zone about five millimeters beneath the surface of the medium. When cultures are placed in the proper atmosphere, development on the surface may be obtained.

In the diseased animal, the specific bacteria are found in the placenta and amniotic fluid, frequently also inside the fœtal intestine, sometimes in the tissues of the fœtal organs, and in the wall of the maternal uterus. The placenta appears to be the particular organ favorable to the development of the germ, and when this has been discharged from the body the abortion bacilli no longer flourish, although the infection may continue as a chronic uterine inflammation for a long time. The general health is only slightly disturbed. At the next pregnancy the disease is practically certain to reappear, and possibly again also at the succeeding one. After two or three abortions the animals appear to have acquired an immunity to the infection, and may sometimes breed normally thereafter, although some animals are permanently sterile after a few attacks of the disease.

The organisms escape from the diseased animal in the products of conception at the time of the abortion, and in the chronic uterine discharge which may continue for a long time afterward. The disease may be

conveyed to other animals by contact with this material and by eating grass or other feed soiled with it. Doubtless the male is an important factor, possibly the most important factor, in transmitting the disease, although no serious inflammation is produced in him.

The control of the disease depends upon the isolation of the infected animals, cremation of infected fœtus, placenta and discharges, and thorough disinfection of the premises. Heifers and healthy cows should not be allowed to mingle with cows which have aborted, nor should they be served by a bull which has covered infected animals at any time. Local antiseptic treatment of the cow which has aborted diminishes the danger of the persisting discharge.

Contagious abortion also occurs in other domestic animals, especially in horses, sheep, goats and swine. Inoculation experiments have shown that the *Bact. abortus* of Bang can infect some of these animals. Its importance as a factor in the epizoötics of abortion occurring naturally among them is still uncertain. In horses at any rate another organism appears to be more frequently involved.

Diphtheria.*

Bacterium diphtheriæ.

The disease is epidemic in all large communities especially in Europe and America. It is, however, almost absent from tropical regions. Epidemics and pandemics occur in cycles. Essentially diphtheria is a disease peculiar to man. Avian diphtheria, however, is known, and on rare occasions natural infection has been found in the horse.

The period of incubation is said to be two to five days.

In man the disease usually begins with lassitude and fever followed in a few hours by "sore throat." The inflamed area on the pharyngeal wall, tonsils, larynx or whatever it may be becomes in typical cases the seat of degenerative changes in the epithelium and underlying tissues with abundant fibrinous exudation resulting in the formation of a comparatively tough membrane or pesudo-membrane, which is a striking and characteristic feature of the disease. This local lesion is almost always found on mucous membranes though occasional instances of infection of wounds have been noted.

The bacterium of diphtheria was described in 1883 by Klebs in sections

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

of typical membranes. The organisms were isolated and differentiated in 1884 by Loeffler, who was able to fulfill Koch's postulates for pathogenic microbes. Accidental infection of the human being has happened in the laboratory and confirmed the findings of animal inoculation. The success of antitoxin treatment is further evidence of causal relationship.

The organism is detected in the following manner: A sterile swab is rubbed gently over the inflamed area or against any visible membrane, care being taken to touch other parts as little as possible. The swab is then immediately inserted into a tube of specially prepared medium—Loeffler's inspissated blood serum—over the surface of which it is rubbed back and forth. The swab is returned to its own tube or left against the serum and the culture and swab sent to the laboratory. After twelve to

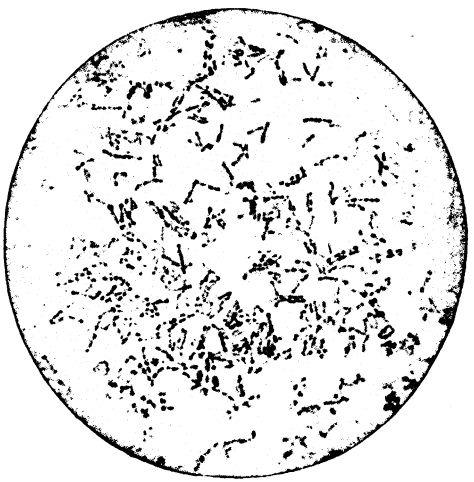


FIG. 104.—Bacterium of diphtheria. ×1000. (*After Williams.*)

eighteen hours of incubation, at 37°, smears are made from the cultures and stained with Loeffler's methylene blue. The diagnosis is made on the morphological characters of the bacterium. Occurring in pure cultures the form of the bacterium is subject to remarkable changes according to the medium and length of cultivation. Its size as it appears in exudates and from serum media varies from 1μ to 7μ in length and 0.25μ to 2μ in width. The rods are straight or slightly curved, usually not uniformly cylindrical but with swelling at the ends, or in the middle, or irregularly disposed (Fig. 104). Both ends may be rounded or both pointed, or one rounded and the other pointed. Branching forms are not infrequently found. The bacteria may appear in pairs end to end; more frequently and typically they are inclined to one another at a greater or less angle and may assume a parallel arrangement or the form of a short zig-

zag chain. The arrangement is most clearly understood and remembered by considering the peculiar "snapping" type of fission characteristic of the group. There are no flagella and no spores. The cell membrane is possessed of great elasticity as evidenced by the post-fission movements. The bacteria stain readily with all the aniline dyes and retain the primary stain fairly well by Gram's method. With Loeffler's methylene blue they stain in a characteristically irregular manner, and show metachromatic "granular" forms, "barred" and "solid-stained" forms (Fig. 105) On a basis of morphology and staining properties, Wesbrook, Wilson and McDaniel have devised a classification which is very convenient for descriptive purposes. The minimum temperature of growth is 18° to 19°, optimum 35° to 37°, maximum 40° to 41°. The bacterium grows most readily in the presence of oxygen. Under certain condi-

FIG. 105.—Westbrook's types of *Bact. diphtheriæ*. *a*, *c*, *d*, granular types; *a'*, *c'*, *d'* barred types; a^2 c^2 d^2, solid types. ×1500. (*From McFarland.*)

tions it will grow anaerobically. The optimum reaction of blood serum media is about +0.8. The amount of acid and alkali which the bacterium can endure varies with the kind of acid. Gelatin is not liquefied, neither the proteins of blood serum nor milk. Caseinogen is not changed to casein. Some carbohydrates are broken up with the production of acid. All authorities find that the bacterium forms acid from dextrose. It is generally agreed that acid is produced from lactose, galactose and maltose. Action on dextrin, lactose, saccharose and glycerin is variable. The majority of workers find mannit is unchanged. An acid reaction in plain broth by fermentation of muscle sugar may be followed by the production of alkali. Gas is not produced under any circumstances. No indol is formed. Most strains cause hæmolysis of red blood cells. A true diffusible toxin is formed for the artificial production of which in broth peptone, absence of sugar, an alkaline reaction and free access of oxygen are favorable factors. Growth on plain nutrient agar is not so abundant as on Loeffler's blood serum. Colonies of two types may be found: (a) most

common is small grayish-white, rounded, slightly raised, almost translucent with more or less granular surface and dark center, the margins, varying in irregularity, and often with a thin extension spreading out from the edge; (b) less common, larger, more luxuriant, white rounded, raised, granular to nearly smooth and somewhat moist. Plain broth must be slightly alkaline to litmus. About one half of cultures grow readily and half very feebly. The characteristic growth is a purely granular deposit at bottom and along sides of the tube leaving the broth clear; a few cultures produce a diffuse cloudiness with more or less well developed pellicle. Gelatin-growth is scanty chiefly owing to temperature at which this medium must be kept. The gelatin is not liquefied. Milk grows readily at comparatively low temperature (20°) without coagulation but with acid production. Potato-growth occurs especially if slightly alkaline; in the majority of cases invisible; it may appear as a thin dry glaze or with a whitish or slightly yellowish tinge. On Loeffler's blood serum growth is rapid. In eighteen to twenty-four hours colonies are rounded, grayish-white with a slightly yellowish tinge moderately translucent except toward the center, smooth, moist and shiny. The margins are only slightly irregular. With age the colonies become dull and opaque, the surface becoming marked by concentric lines and sometimes also exhibiting radial striation. Thermal death-points are 58° to 60° for ten minutes, 70° for five minutes, 100° for one minute. On the other hand −190° for seven days and −252° for ten hours have failed to kill in some instances. Diffuse light hinders growth. Direct sunlight kills within two hours to a few days according to the medium in which the organisms are suspended.

The organism gains entrance into the body through the mouth and nose.

The bacteria usually remain localized; they can almost always be demonstrated when a definite membrane is present and often when there is none. They are practically always found in the lung of fatal cases because of direct infection. Entrance of the bacteria into the blood stream with resulting infection of the internal organs has occurred in fatal cases.

The protective apparatus of the host concerned in diphtheria is probably different at the beginning from that involved late in the disease. Experimentally, agglutinins, bacteriolysins and opsonins have been demonstrated in exudates and serum. While these properties may be important in warding off an infection they appear to be of little influence once the bacteria are established and thereafter depending on the amount of antitoxin will rest the outcome of the disease.

The toxin is strongly antigenic, the cell bodies feebly so. Aggressins have not been demonstrated.

The organisms escape by the secretions of the mouth and nose. Direct infection by coughing, sneezing and speaking probably takes

place frequently not only from the sick and convalescents but also from healthy carriers.

Control of the disease is sought by quarantine of all sick persons and the placing of restrictions if not actual quarantine on those exposed and showing the bacteria in the nose and throat.

DYSENTERY.*

Bacterium dysenteriæ.

Two chief types of dysentery are known, one due to a protozoan —*Amœba dysenteriæ*; the other due to a bacterium—*Bact. dysenteriæ* Only the latter is here dealt with.

Acute dysentery in an epidemic form is found chiefly in Asia, sometimes in Europe and in the Philippines. In this country occasional small epidemics and certain types of summer diarrhœas of infants have been shown to be due to *Bact. dysenteriæ*. The disease occurs naturally only in man.

Dysentery is an intestinal disorder usually acute and, in its epidemic form, very severe, marked by a flux in which there is the frequent passage of blood and mucus with severe tenesmus and pain in the abdomen. The fever accompanying this may reach 104° and in the severe cases delirium and death may result. In Japanese epidemics the fatality has reached 25 per cent or more.

The pathological findings are most marked in the intestine where the mucosa is swollen and hyperæmic, with more or less hæmorrhage and extensive necrosis.

Shiga in 1898 discovered a bacterium in the stools of persons suffering from the disease and the organism was agglutinated by the blood serum of the patients. He found the same organism repeatedly in a considerable number of cases.

The results of many other investigations have demonstrated the presence of several forms conforming in general to the type described by Shiga but showing some difference in fermentation properties; these are sometimes known as para- or pseudo-dysentery bacteria.

The constant presence of the organism in the epidemic type and the fact of agglutination leave little doubt as to the etiological relation. A

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

criminal fed with a pure culture of Shiga's organism developed the typical disease.

The organism can occasionally be isolated in almost pure culture from bits of mucus in the stool. Ordinarily, however, special methods are required for isolation.

Bact. dysenteriæ (*Shiga*) is rather short with rounded ends and closely resembles the typhoid bacillus in gross morphological features. It does not possess flagella. It stains readily with the aniline dyes and is Gram-negative. It grows best at body temperature, is aerobic and facultative anaerobic. It prefers a slightly alkaline medium. On agar, broth, and gelatin growth resembles that of the typhoid bacillus. In litmus milk an alkaline reaction usually follows a slight primary acidity without any further apparent change. On potato growth is at first invisible but may appear later of a brownish color. Acid is formed from dextrose, levulose, and galactose. (Other types described differ from this in the fermentation of mannit and sometimes of maltose.) Gas is never formed. Indol is not formed. (Other types usually form indol.) The toxins are probably chiefly endotoxins, though soluble poisons have also been demonstrated by some workers. The bacterium remains alive for months when preserved under the proper conditions. The thermal death point is 60° and resistance to low temperature is considerable. They are sensitive to the usual strength of ordinary disinfectants.

Dysentery does not occur in animals under natural conditions. By artificial method, however, it is claimed the disease has been reproduced in dogs. Cultures, living or dead, are often extremely toxic to small animals, especially the rabbit, and produce, after intravenous injection, violent intestinal symptoms, due evidently to the excretion of an irritating poison. Nervous symptoms are also more or less marked and paralysis sometimes occurs before death. Immunity produced artificially in animals is accompanied by the production of lysins and agglutinins and lately antitoxins have been described in accord with the demonstration of diffusible toxins. The agglutination in man is of diagnostic value.

The epidemiology of dysentery is the same as for typhoid fever. In a few instances the bacilli have been demonstrated in the fæces of healthy persons, and convalescents may remain carriers for several months.

Some success has been recorded from the administration of animal immune sera and has been attributed to both lytic and antitoxic action. Active immunization as a means of prophylaxis does not seem to be of much value.

Fowl Diphtheria.*

This disease, popularly known as Roup, and in its later stages canker, is characterized by a grayish-yellow fibrinous exudate, called a false membrane, which forms upon the mucous membrane of the eyes, nasal passage, mouth, pharynx and larynx.

Roup, or fowl diphtheria, may be caused by a number of different organisms, among them the well-known *Ps. pyocyanea* (green or blue pus organism), *B. cacosmus* and other species which give rise to a complex suppurative process. The pus formed is semi-solid, cheese.like and yellowish-white in color without any tendency to become soft and liquid or to perforate the surrounding skin. The organisms have a tendency to penetrate the deeper layers of the mucous membrane or sub-mucous tissues, and hence swabs or cultures taken from the false membranes may not contain the causal microörganisms which are retained in the depths of the tissues. Sections of membranes from affected fowls show large numbers of pus cells, some regular masses, débris of epithelial cells and bacteria, and thus they differ from the diphtheritic membranes of man.

The organisms mentioned above have been isolated from affected fowls, not only in America but also by Hauser in Europe. Several investigators have described other bacteria producing false membranes, and there are a few who think that coccidia are associated with the disease.

Both *Ps. pyocyanea* and *B. cacosmus* are able to produce false membranes when inoculated into healthy birds, typical croupous and diphtheritic membranes in the mouth and eyes; tumors in the subcutaneous tissues, the contents of which are firm, cheesy and yellowish-white; purulent conjunctivitis, blindness, purulent ophthalmia, and cheese-like exudations in the bronchial tubes. These indications are identical with the symptoms of "roup."

The disease is of variable virulence, and is apt to become chronic, especially in unhygienic surroundings, and in draughty, badly ventilated damp houses. A common cold in a predisposing factor, and favors the invasion of the organisms mentioned.

Treatment of severe cases is useless, and demands too much time. Diseased birds should be isolated and the buildings thoroughly disinfected.

* Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

Slight cases may be cured by a 2 per cent solution of potassium permanganate, in which the bird's head is plunged for a few seconds. This treatment should be given twice a day and continued until all symptoms have disappeared. The most effective preventive is to keep fowls in good sanitary conditions—in dry, clean and well ventilated houses, free from draughts.

Besides the organisms mentioned, Loeffler has described the *B. diphtheriæ columbarium*, and Loir and Duclaux the *B. diphtheriæ gallinarum* as causing fowl diphtheria, but the diseases produced by these organisms are very dissimilar from the well-known "Roup" of North America. The Klebs-Loeffler bacterium of human diphtheria has no pathogenic effect on fowls.

GLANDERS.*

Bacterium mallei.

Glanders is a very common and serious disease, most common among equines. It is communicable to the human being by inoculation and by the same process may affect sheep, goats, and laboratory animals. Cattle are not susceptible.

Bact. mallei and the disease it produces are widely scattered over the civilized world wherever horses are numerous.

This infection produces a disease which may be acute or chronic according to the virulence of the microörganisms and resistance of the animal. Mules and donkeys are less resistant than horses and usually have the disease in more acute form.

The characteristic features of the disease produced are inflammatory changes of the lymph glands and lymph vessels, ulceration of mucous membranes, the tubercle, the farcy bud, the lymph cord, and the peculiar, clear, viscid discharge. There is considerable fever in acute cases, much less marked or absent in chronic cases. In a very common type of the disease there frequently occurs a destructive inflammation of the nasal mucous membrane which results in ulcers and consequent nasal discharge.

Glanders in man is rare considering the frequent opportunity for infection. There are usually inflammatory swellings with involvement of local lymph glands, and constitutional disturbances soon follow the local symptoms. Human glanders is to be always regarded as very

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

serious with a probability of fatal termination. Ulcers may develop in the nose or mouth with more or less discharge. Pustules appear involving the skin, and abscesses involve deeper structures in various portions of the body.

The distribution of *Bact. mallei* in the animal body is shown by the most common appearance of its disease in the skin, subcutaneous tissue, mucous membranes, lymphatic system, lungs, liver, spleen and kidneys.

The etiological factor is a small bacillus with rounded ends known as *Bact. mallei*, discovered by Loeffler and Schütz in 1882, and well demonstrated to be the specific cause of glanders.

Entrance is usually effected by way of a mucous membrane, frequently the intestinal; sometimes by inoculation. The period of incubation seems variable and uncertain under natural infection, but in artificial inoculation with virulent cultures, is very brief.

Bact. mallei produces toxins in artificial media and presumably also in body tissues; *e.g.*, the well-known preparation called *mallein*. This toxin (mallein) produces a distinct reaction by inoculation into glandered animals, but is practically non-toxic for healthy equines. So far as known *Bact. mallei* attacks the animal tissues as do many other microörganisms, the harm resulting chiefly from bacterial toxins which give the local tissue reactions leading to the lesions characteristic of glanders.

In its action on tissues *Bact. mallei* resembles *Bact. tuberculosis;* but shows a more rapid development of lesions and more active inflammation.

Lesions are of two types—a well-defined nodule followed by ulceration and diffuse areas of infiltration.

The nodule as it appears in glanders consists largely of lymphoid cells. Nodules die at the center, suppurate, and discharge. This occurs especially in the external form of glanders, which affects more commonly the legs and head. Occasionally defined enlargements appear in the involved lung areas. Pulmonary lymph glands are frequently enlarged, and hardened. The superficial skin lesions are in the form of nodules previously mentioned, which usually suppurate and ultimately heal. In the deeper subcutaneous tissues there is a tendency to abscess formation. Small nodules or tubercles commonly appear in the lungs of affected horses. These vary in size from millet seed to as large as garden peas. Various degrees of broncho-pneumonia appear and more or less pleurisy.

Bact. mallei shows no flagella and is non-motile. It is a small bacillus 0.25μ to 0.4μ thick by 1.5μ to 3.μ long with rounded ends (Fig. 106). It is generally single.

Coccus forms sometimes appear and even short threads when grown on certain media; *e.g.*, potato. It decolorizes by Gram's method and is not easily stained by the aniline dyes. This bacterium grows fairly well between 25° and 42° on potato, glycerin agar, or blood serum. The guinea pig gives a reliable diagnosis by inoculation, giving a diagnostic reaction in four or five days. Diagnosis may also be confirmed by the agglutination test in dilution from 1 to 10 to 1 to 50 in from twenty minutes to three hours (Moore) and by the complement fixation test. Satisfactorily stained in tissue section by Kuehn's carbol-methylene blue. Its growth is limited at an upper range of about 42° and the culture is killed at 55° in about five minutes. *Bact. mallei* is difficult to isolate by culture methods being a slow grower and easily lost beside faster growing organisms. It can be better isolated by guinea-pig inoculation. In growth it is both aerobic and aenærobic.

FIG. 106.—*Bacterium mallei.* From pure culture on glycerin agar. ×1000. (*From Migula.*)

The virus escapes from the body in various ways. Elimination is most common in morbid discharges from the nose, pharynx, trachea, and in pus from farcy buds and abscesses.

Bact. mallei may spread directly from the diseased animal to the susceptible animal, or the dissemination may be by way of intermediate objects; *e.g.*, troughs, feed boxes, water pails, etc., and perhaps also by inhalation.

In man, infection occurs usually by inoculation. Cases produced in this way occasionally appear among laboratory workers.

Bact. mallei is to be regarded as purely parasitic and limited in its natural activities to the animal body.

Bact. mallei is easily destroyed by a variety of unfavorable conditions. It is destroyed by drying in fifteen to twenty days and is easily killed by heat or antiseptics.

All plain cases of glanders in domestic animals should be promptly destroyed. Exposed horses should be tested with mallein. Those that react should be destroyed or quarantined, and contaminated premises properly disinfected.

INFLUENZA.*

Bacterium influenzæ.

The natural disease appears to be limited to man. The incubation period is very uncertain—probably very variable.

While the clinical manifestations of infection with *Bact. influenzæ* are variable the ordinary form begins with sudden severe headache accompanied by great prostration, pains and aches in the back and bones, and a rapid rise of temperature. The fever lasts from three to five days and leaves the patient extremely weak, and depressed in both mind and body.

Pfeiffer in 1892 described a bacterium which occurred in large numbers in the purulent bronchial secretion expectorated by influenza patients. The causal relationship has been quite definitely established.

An examination of the sputum furnishes good presumptive evidence, but cultivation is necessary for positive diagnosis.

The purulent material is streaked out in a drop of sterile blood upon an agar plate.

Agglutination and complement fixation tests are valuable means for identification.

In pure cultures the bacterium is 0.2μ to 0.3μ wide by 0.5μ long with occasional threads up to 2μ in length. The ends of the rod are rounded. The arrangement is usually single, occasionally in pairs end to end and rarely in chains. The bacterium is non-motile and does not show capsules or spores. It does not stain readily with ordinary aniline dyes. It is Gram-negative. Polar staining is shown sometimes. The temperature range of the influenza bacterium is about 26° to 41°. It is aerobic. It grows on artificial media only in the presence of blood pigment. On plain agar, glycerin agar, or blood serum with a thin layer of rabbit or human blood the colonies in twenty-four hours are very small, round and transparent, and remain discrete unless very thickly sown. The center of older colonies may acquire a yellow-brown color. In blood broth growth occurs quite readily if the medium is used in thin layers. It shows very much less resistance than the majority of non-spore-bearing bacteria. It is destroyed at 60° within about one minute. It is especially sensitive to drying.

The bacterium gains entrance through the mouth and nose and finds suitable soil in the mucous membrane of the respiratory passage. The

*Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

toxæmia is due to absorption from this site rather than to the presence of the bacteria in the blood.

The bodies of the bacteria are distinctly pyogenic.

Secondary infections are prone to follow upon influenza so that abscess, gangrene of the lung, and empyemia are not infrequent.

Influenza bacteria have been found in the lungs, middle ear, meninges, brain and spinal cord.

Immunity after natural infection is transitory if present at all.

The organisms are eliminated through the gates of entrance. Infection is for the most part direct, and follows close contact with a patient or carrier.

The bacteria are said to persist for many years in the bronchial secretions of convalescents and healthy individuals.

Therapeutically there is no specific measure for the control of this disease. Remembering that the infective agent is ejected during the coughing and speaking of the patient and is present in great numbers in the sputum, personal hygienic measures in both patient and contact should prove very effective.

HÆMORRHAGIC SEPTICÆMIA.*

Bacterium bovisepticum.

Hæmorrhagic septicæmia belongs to a class of similar diseases grouped under the general head of *Pasteurelloses*.

This disease has been reported from many portions of North America, from some sections of South America and many European countries. It is known under a variety of names, as cornstalk disease, buffalo disease, pneumo-enteritis, etc.

Bact. bovisepticum produces a serious disease and affects a wide variety of domestic and wild animals. The domestic animals most commonly affected are cattle, sheep, horses and goats; the disease being much more common among cattle than among other classes of stock.

The onset of disease is usually sudden, and the case acute. Hæmorrhagic septicæmia does not spread from herd to herd but appears in isolated outbreaks usually at wide distances apart. It is a common experience to find a serious outbreak in one herd without any appearance

*Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

of the disease in another herd in an adjoining pasture, with only a barbed wire fence between.

Hæmorrhages found at autopsy constitute the most specific and characteristic clinical evidence of this disease. Its mortality is very high, running from 50 to 90 per cent.

Hæmorrhagic septicæmia of cattle, chicken cholera, swine plague, and a number of other diseases belonging to this group are very similar in clinical features and the bacteria which cause these diseases are very similar in cultural and microscopic features. Yet all evidence points to the fact that *Bact. bovisepticum* acts as a specific causal agent for hæmorrhagic septicæmia of cattle.

Body infection probably occurs by inoculation. Clinical features of this disease point to inoculation and we know that the disease does not spread by simple association or ordinary contact and that there is no general atmospheric distribution of *Bact. bovisepticum.* Satisfactory information concerning the period of incubation is not available.

Acute and rapidly fatal cases where the autopsy shows only trifling lesions would indicate the formation of active toxins. The characteristic hæmorrhages indicate the production of substances actively toxic for the endothelial cells of capillaries. The fact that these hæmorrhages vary in different cases from extensive subcutaneous areas to those that are scarcely visible would seem to indicate that this endothelial cell toxin is produced in greatly varying quantities or of greatly varying toxicity.

The lesions produced by this bacterium indicate a general distribution through the body.

The characteristic features as previously mentioned are the hæmorrhages which are either subcutaneous, or under the mucous membrane or under serious membranes. Lymph glands are frequently infiltrated with extensive hæmorrhages.

Cases have been reported as showing high fever. Those studied by the writer have, as a rule, showed slight disturbance of temperature until near death. When voluntary muscles are involved the hæmorrhages invade connective tissues rather than muscle tissue proper.

Bact. bovisepticum resembles so closely the bacterium of chicken cholera, the bacterium of rabbit septicæmia, *B. cholerœ suis* and other members of this group (*Pasteurelloses*) that laboratory differentiation from other members of the group is exceedingly difficult. It is a very small bacterium with rounded ends, closely resembling a diplococcus. It is from 1μ to 1.5μ long and from 0.3μ to 0.6μ thick. Involution forms

sometimes appear. It shows bipolar stain, decolorizes by Gram's method, produces no spores, has no flagella, and is non-motile.

The disease resembles anthrax in some general characteristics but is easily distinguished by microscopic examination of the blood and failure to find the large anthrax bacteria and by the fact that the blood from the general circulation is apparently normal in hæmorrhagic septicæmia. This disease also resembles symptomatic anthrax (blackleg) but is easily distinguished in that external swellings are slight if present at all and do not show gas, both of these features being characteristic of blackleg. The bacillus of symptomatic anthrax may be recognized by microscopic examination as so different from *Bacterium bovisepticum* that there could be no mistaking one for the other.

Little is known concerning elimination of this bacterium from the diseased body and concerning methods of dissemination. Hence we are very much in the dark when attempting to deal with the disease produced by it.

Isolation and disinfection are to be recommended on general principles.

LEPROSY.*

Bacterium lepræ.

Leprosy is a disease almost as old as history itself but modern leprosy cannot be definitely identified with the leprosy of the Old Testament, and to day is found chiefly in oriental countries and in Norway, Iceland and Russia. The disease is present in some of the provinces of Canada and in the States of Louisiana, California and Minnesota, and practically limited to Scandinavians in the latter states. The natural incubation period is difficult to ascertain but is probably a matter of months or years.

Clinically there are two main types of the disease, the tubercular or nodular and the anæsthetic types. In the first form, nodules develop in the face or other parts of the body usually preceded by an erythematous patch. The mucous membranes become affected more or less extensively and the hair and eyebrows fall out. In the anæsthetic type after various disturbances of sensation which may sometimes be followed by maculæ there develop areas of anæsthesia. Bullæ, ulcers and necrosis may occur with resulting deformities or again this type may exist for years without leading to such results.

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

The bacteria of leprosy were first described by Hansen in 1879 and almost at the same time Neisser published similar descriptions. Cultivation of *Bact. leprœ* has been successful in the hands of Clegg, Duval and others.

The microörganisms can be shown in tissue by the use of the Ziehl-Neelsen or Gabbet methods.

In tissue the bacterium closely resembles the bacterium of tuberculosis, but usually appears somewhat longer (5μ to 7μ) and thicker (about 0.5μ) straighter and less beaded. Flagella have not been demonstrated. The bacterium can be stained with the ordinary aniline dyes. It is Gram-positive. The staining reactions on the whole are like those of *Bact. tuberculosis* but *Bact. leprœ* stains more readily and also decolorizes more readily; 30 per cent nitric acid followed by 95 per cent alcohol will totally decolorize them while *Bact. tuberculosis* resists. The optimum temperature for growth ranges from 32° to 35° when grown in symbiosis with amœbæ. The reaction of the media upon which successful isolation takes place is 1 to 1.5 per cent alkaline to phenolphthalein. In recently isolated cultures growth is extremely slow and appears on the surface of the special media in four to six weeks as moist grayish-white colonies elevated centrally, with an irregular wavy margin and attaining a diameter of 2 mm. Older cultures on glycerin agar are moist and abundant, and develop an orange-yellow pigment. In glycerin broth a thin membrane is formed at the surface after several weeks, while a small amount of sediment collects at the bottom of the tube leaving the medium clear. The resistance to heat is much greater than that of ordinary vegetative bacteria, so that cultures may be freed from contamination by the latter by simply heating to 60° for one hour. The resistance to drying is probably considerable.

Human leprosy appears to be confined naturally to man and only lately has the disease been transmitted artificially to animals. In the Japanese dancing mouse, and less frequently in the white mouse and the monkey small nodules may be found on the peritoneum about four to eight weeks after intraperitoneal inoculation. The animals do not show any symptom of illness and must be killed in order to find the lesion. More recently Duvae has produced an apparently typical leprosy in monkeys by repeated injections of artificial cultures.

It is generally considered that the usual path of entrance of the bacterium is the naso-pharyngeal mucous membrane. The organisms seem to be distributed slowly over the body and according to their location produce the different types of the disease. They are found in the nodules of the nodular type and in the nerve trunks of the anæsthetic type.

Agglutinins have been demonstrated in the blood of lepers. Complement deviation with various antigens has been investigated and indicates

an antilipoid immune body which not infrequently gives a positive Wassermann reaction. Lepers react frequently to tuberculin inoculations and this is not considered to be always due to associated tuberculosis.

The chief source of elimination of leprosy bacteria is the nasal mucosa. They have been demonstrated in about 40 per cent of the macular types, 80 per cent of the nodular and mixed types.

While a great deal of popular fear exists against this disease it is decidedly less infectious than pulmonary tuberculosis. Lepers have unquestionably been subjected to a great deal of wholly unnecessary persecution.

Prophylactically, isolation has certainly demonstrated its value and the reported increase of leprosy in certain parts of Europe has been attributed to a decrease of this custom of segregation.

PLAGUE.*

Bacterium pestis.

Epidemics have been recognized since the second century. About half the population of the Roman Empire died in the sixth century. An epidemic of the fourteenth century destroyed half the inhabitants of Europe. In India during 1901 to 1904 about 2,000,000 died of the disease. In China, in Egypt, South Africa, and in sea ports of the Western hemisphere, plague has been found.

Among animals the disease has been found chiefly in rats and squirrels. Dogs may occasionally become infected.

Four types are described, the ambulant, bubonic, septicæmic, and pneumonic. The bubonic type forms three quarters of the cases. Physical and mental depression accompanied by a high fever, often with a remission about the third day, occurs. Collapse may then follow with death. Glandular swellings (buboes) appear in the groin and axilla and these may suppurate. Hæmorrhages beneath skin and mucous membranes are common. The third type is a very rapid form, causing death before the development of buboes. The fourth type is also a short and extremely fatal form, marked by the occurrence of bronchopneumonia due to the plague bacteria.

The bacterium of bubonic plague was described by Yersin and

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

Kitasato independently in 1893. They found it in glands and throughout the body in fatal cases.

The organism is readily grown from the buboes; the blood, and the sputum in the pneumonic type, by simple inoculation of ordinary media of a slightly alkaline reaction. The bacteria are 1.5μ to 1.7μ long by 0.55μ to 0.7μ wide with rounded ends occurring singly or in pairs and short chains in exudates and sometimes in long chains in broth. Involution forms, large swollen spheres, clubs, etc., are characteristic in artificial media. There are no spores. It is non-motile. Some observers have demonstrated a gelatinous capsule. Occasionally very distinct branching occurs (Hill). Stain easily with aniline dyes, particularly at the poles which may show round or oval granules. It is Gram-negative. Its minimum temperature for growth is about 12°, the optimum 30°, the maximum 40°. It is aerobic. On agar after twenty-four hours

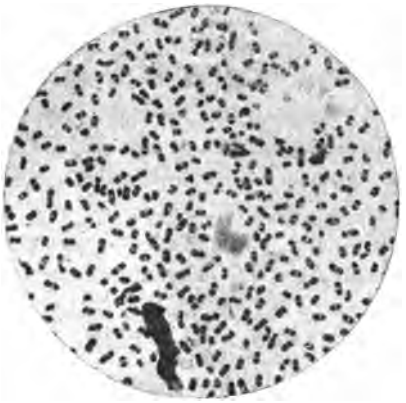


FIG. 107.—*Bact. pestis.* (*After Yersin from Williams.*)

shows small granular grayish colonies with a thickened center and indented margin. Broth shows a granular deposit and sometimes a pellicle with dependent outgrowths, the medium remaining otherwise clear. Gelatin growths are as on agar, and the medium is not liquefied. Litmus milk may show slight acid formation and no coagulation. Potato shows nothing characteristic. The toxins appear to be largely endotoxins, though soluble poisons have been found in old cultures. No indol is formed. Resistance toward heat is not great, boiling kills in a few minutes. Light kills in a few hours. They do not resist drying well, but in a moist condition remain viable for over a year. The usual strengths of ordinary disinfectants kill in about ten minutes.

Rats, mice, guinea-pigs, rabbits, and monkeys are particularly susceptible to inoculation and even insects die from infection.

The bacterium enters the body through the (usually abraded) skin or

respiratory tract. After involvement of the nearest lymphatic glands the bacteria are distributed through the blood.

Single attacks immunize. The antibodies developed are agglutinins, are probably bacteriolytic, and possibly antitoxic bodies. The agglutination reaction is of value in diagnosis.

The organisms are eliminated in the exudates from suppurating buboes, from the sputum in the pneumonic type, and are present throughout the body after death. The dead bodies of human beings and of rats are sources of infection for other rats. There seems good evidence of these animals becoming chronic carriers though showing no symptoms of disease, and may thus be important factors in maintaining and spreading plague.

The disease is largely communicated by means of fleas which have become infected by living on other human beings or even upon rats.

Prophylaxis consists of isolation of pneumonic cases, thorough disinfection involving the killing of fleas, and chiefly the destruction of rats, squirrels, and other animals which may serve as carriers. Haffkine's vaccination method has also been shown to be a valuable prophylactic measure.

The serum of immunized animals has been tried as a therapeutic agent and gives encouraging results when administered in the early stages.

Swine Erysipelas.*

Bacterium rhusiopathiæ suis.

Swine erysipelas is an infectious disease of hogs characterized by red or violet discoloration of the skin and mucous membranes. Swine erysipelas does not exist in the United States but is very prevalent in continental Europe. It is caused by a very small, slender, non-motile, non-spore-bearing bacterium (*Bact. rhusiopathiæ suis*) which stains by Gram's method, and grows feebly on the ordinary culture media. Development is best under anaerobic conditions. In gelatin stab cultures, after three or four days, a white growth can be seen along the needle puncture. Radiating from this are a number of delicate tufts which give the growth the appearance of a fine test-tube brush. White and gray mice, white rats, and pigeons succumb to the inoculation of minute amounts of the culture. The bacteria tend to collect within the bodies

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

of the leucocytes. This microörganism is closely related to and possibly identical with the bacterium of mouse septicæmia (*Bact. murisepticum*). Preventive inoculation with attenuated cultures has long been practised successfully in Europe.

TUBERCULOSIS.*

Bacterium tuberculosis.

Consumption, phthisis, scrofula, pearl disease, etc., are synonyms of the term tuberculosis.

This bacterium in its several varieties produces a very universal disease; practically all common animals and man are subject to it. Cattle and swine among the domestic animals are especially susceptible to this infection and wild animals in captivity easily become affected.

The normal progress of tuberculosis is slow. Its characteristic feature is the tubercle or nodule of various sizes.

Tuberculosis is probably the most common and serious of all diseases for either animal or man.

In 1906, 138,000 persons died from tuberculosis in the United States, or at the rate of 164 per 100,000 population. Based upon these facts, it is estimated that about 5,000,000 of those now living in the United States will die of the disease. It is claimed that the disease alone costs the United States from $400,000,000 to $1,000,000,000 each year (Fisher).

If the loss from wage earnings, the cost of the patient in suffering, medical treatment, medicines, nursing, board, and care, also the suffering and sacrifice entailed by near relatives, friends, and communities are considered, the loss to the country mentioned above does not appear so enormous.

It is estimated by the United States Bureau of Animal Industry that 2 per cent of hogs in the United States are tubercular, and that losses of stock in the United States, due to tuberculosis, amount to $23,000,000 annually. Of 400,000 cattle tested in the United States 9.25 per cent were tubercular. The highest prevalence of tuberculosis in cattle is among pure bred herds and in city dairy stables; *i.e.*, among the cattle kept most closely confined. Tuberculous infection is quite generally scattered among cattle of civilized nations.

Tuberculosis appears in man usually in the form of lupus (tuberculosis

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

of the skin), or scrofula (tuberculosis of the cervical glands), or phthisis (tuberculosis of the lungs). It also frequently appears in the mesenteric glands and other glands of the body, and may appear in any of the tissues. Open tuberculosis in man is quite easily recognized, but when it is concealed it becomes difficult to diagnose its presence. It is quite possible, judging from autopsies, that many persons have tuberculosis without realizing its existence in the body, and without its being detected in any way. It is questionable, however, whether under such circumstances the disease is transmitted or disseminated.

As a rule affected cattle show no definite outward signs of the disease. Badly diseased animals frequently appear fat and thrifty. *Bact. tuberculosis* does not, as a rule, produce an evident disease. Many cases are mild and latent. A few tubercular animals cough; some show harsh hair and skin and other expressions of ill health. While these symptoms do not necessarily indicate tuberculosis, they are very suggestive.

Bact. tuberculosis may invade almost any tissue or organ of man or the animal body and produce a variety of lesions. Man usually gives some evidence of the disease not necessarily objectively but subjectively, and in many instances the disease assumes a definite form which is easily recognized by medical men, unlike its presence in animals. The symptoms are more evident in swine than in cattle. Affected hogs are often unthrifty and show glandular enlargements and degenerations of the enlarged glands.

Avian tubercle bacteria are becoming disseminated among poultry, and to a serious extent in some sections of the country. Among the more prominent symptoms of avian tuberculosis are emaciation with marked anæmia and weakness. Examination of the carcass shows disease most frequently in the liver, but intestines, spleen, lungs, and even the skin may be invaded. The avian tubercle bacterium varies in certain respects from the bovine variety; it usually measures from 1μ to 4μ in length with a general average of 2.7μ.

It has long been firmly established that *Bact. tuberculosis* is the specific cause of this disease. But while this bacterium is to be regarded as the specific cause it must be understood that this organism is frequently associated with pus-producing bacteria which are responsible for certain phases of the disease as commonly seen. It should be understood also that persons and animals become more susceptible and have greater opportunities for infection under close confinement and lack of exercise.

There has been great difference of opinion concerning the unity of the tubercle bacterium, and the probability of inter-transmission between man and the lower animals. A large number of bacteriologists now hold that the several types of tubercle bacteria are but environmental variations of the same species.

The entrance of the germ may occur in four ways, namely, by way of the digestive tract with food or drink; it may occur by way of the respiratory organs with inspired air; it may occur by inoculation; and infection may possibly occur before birth. Good authorities hold that the most common infection is by way of the digestive tract and in early life. Inhalation tuberculosis is also regarded as very common.

This bacterium produces a slow toxæmia, and it is this toxæmia together with physical embarrassment of the vital organs by extensive lesions which together harm the affected body. Various toxins are produced, as indicated by the fact that killed cultures by subcutaneous injection destroy local tissues and produce abscess, debility, and emaciation. Production of toxins is indicated by the further fact that an antitoxic immunity may be produced by minute doses of killed culture gradually increased.

Tuberculin is a common and well known product or mixture of products produced by this bacterium. One of its constituent products is a fever producer. Another product has been recognized which reduces temperature, and still another which produces convulsions, in sufficient dose.

Tuberculosis may be very general. Almost any tissue or organ in the body may be invaded; but, as a rule, not many organs are badly affected in the same case. Distribution occurs by way of both the blood and lymph streams, especially the latter. It seems probable that tubercle bacteria may be distributed in the body by wandering phagocytes.

The *Bact. tuberculosis* has a characteristic tendency to produce tubercles or nodules which may be large or small; they have a tendency to central necrosis and degeneration. Mucous membranes, under this infection, tend to develop superficial ulcers.

The lesions produced by this microörganism may vary from the tiniest tubercles to extensive areas of large organs. Lymph glands frequently enlarge and undergo cheesy or calcareous degeneration. Tubercular masses of various sizes may appear upon the lining membranes of the chest and abdominal cavities and upon various internal organs. Cheesy abscesses may appear in the depths of soft organs.

In cows the udder is occasionally enlarged and shows hard masses with little or none of the heat usually occurring in connection with inflammatory changes. Bones and joints are often involved; these increase in size, produce pain, and suppurate.

Bacterium tuberculosis is a slender rod-shaped organism with rounded ends. It varies between 2μ and 5μ in length, and 0.3μ to 0.5μ in width. This bacterium is usually straight, but may be bent; it appears either singly or in groups or branched, and is probably not a spore producer. (Fig. 108). Glycerin agar, blood serum, egg slant, and bouillon may all serve as satisfactory nutrient media. Tubercle bacteria may be demonstrated in cover-glass smears from diseased tissues and fluids and in tissue sections (Fig. 109). In human tuberculosis the bacteria are frequently determined in the sputum, in bovine tuberculosis the bacteria may be occasionally demon-

FIG. 108.—*Bact. tuberculosis.* Branching forms fom a culture. (*After Migula.*)

FIG. 109.—*Bacterium tuberculosis.* Sputum preparation uncolored. (*After Migula.*)

strated in the nasal discharges and in the manure. Positive diagnosis may usually be made by guinea-pig inoculation. For microscopic examination a cover glass smear is fixed in the usual way, then stained with hot carbol-fuchsin three to five minutes or in cold stain fifteen to twenty minutes. It is then decolorized, *e.g.*, in 10 per cent nitric acid, and counterstained with methylene blue for about one minute, after which it is rinsed and ready for examination.

It is conceded that tubercle bacteria do not multiply in nature outside the animal body and therefore dissemination must depend wholly upon the dissemination of infected man or animals and materials infected by diseased man and animals. Tubercle bacteria escape from open ulcers or from tubercular abscesses which connect with digestive or respiratory organs. They may reach the surface in other ways; *e.g.*, by the dis-

charge of abscesses. Nasal discharges, saliva, or excreta of affected animals may contain virulent tubercle bacteria.

In controlling tuberculosis among humans at the present time, several methods are in vogue. In some localities, an effort is made to segregate tuberculous patients during the day for the purpose of treating them as well as teaching them how to care for themselves. This method aims to instruct how to prevent dissemination and transmission of the disease, to prepare suitable nourishment, and to secure the advantages of open-air influences. This instruction not only extends to the patients but others with whom the patients may mingle. Sanitaria are also constructed to receive patients suffering from the disease, and care for them under suitable medical supervision by proper treatment, nourishment, and open-air life. Again, the policy is being inaugurated to instruct tuberculous patients, where it is impossible to reach them by other means, to care for themselves in their own homes.

By these general hygienic measures, much good has been accomplished, not only for the patients but, also, in a diminution of the number of new cases developing.

The disease is carried to distant points, most commonly by breeding stock. Locally the disease spreads either by the movement of affected cattle, or frequently by infected milk. Hogs receive their infection from the milk of tubercular cattle or from the manure of such cattle in feeding yards. Unventilated stables are favorable for the spread of this disease because with insufficient ventilation the bacteria are not carried out, but become constantly more numerous. The tubercle

FIG. 110.—*Bact. tuberculosis.* Glycerin agar culture. (*After Curtis from Stitt.*)

bacterium is quite resistant to drying, but is rather sensitive to sunlight. It is usually destroyed by moist heat in six hours at 55°; in twenty minutes at 60°; and generally in two to five minutes at 95°, depending upon the protection it may have.

Conditions of sensible sanitation are of the utmost importance. These include exercise, sunlight, and ventilation, particularly sunlight. In order that effective control work may be done, tuberculin must be used freely and conscientiously.

The method of dealing with diseased herds depends upon breeding and value. Common cattle are usually dealt with most economically and efficiently by slaughter with a view to using such carcasses as may pass inspection. Valuable cattle, especially pure bred animals, may be used for breeding purposes, gradually building up a sound herd and gradually displacing the diseased animals. This latter plan is usually unprofitable and unwise except for valuable cattle.

Foot Rot of Sheep.*

Bacillus necrophorus.

This is an infectious disease of sheep characterized by an ulcerative inflammation of the tissues just above the horny part of the cleft of the hoof. It is seen in Europe, England, Australia, and the United States. Sheep are made lame and if the disease is not checked by appropriate treatment, the hoof becomes greatly distorted, the sheep being finally unable to walk. Mohler and Washburn† state that foot rot is caused by *B. necrophorus*, this organism being associated with pus-producing micrococci. *B. necrophorus*, which is a strict anaerobe, tends to grow out into long filaments; it is stained by the ordinary aniline dyes, but not by Gram's method. Rabbits and white mice are susceptible to inoculations of this bacillus, but guinea pigs appear to be immune. The disease is treated by causing infected sheep to walk through a disinfecting solution, such as a 3 per cent solution of carbolic acid.

Foul Brood of Bees.‡

Bacillus alvei. Bacillus larvæ.

This disease has been known since the time of Aristotle. It was well described by Shirach in 1769, who gave the malady its popular name,

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

† Bulletin 63, Bur. An. Industry, U. S. Dept. Agr., 1904.

‡ Prepared by F. C. Harrison.

and suggested a method of cure almost identical with that used at the present day. In 1886 Cheshire and Watson Cheyne showed that the disease was caused by a bacillus, to which they gave the name *B. alvei*. In 1906 White isolated an organism from diseased bee larvæ, which he called *B. larvæ*, which does not grow on the ordinary culture media, and hence had escaped the attention of various workers. The name of "American foul brood" has been suggested for this disease, but the choice of this name seems unfortunate, because it is claimed that *B. larvæ* is the organism which produces the typical symptoms described by investigators in Europe.

The disease principally affects the larvæ, which in the early stages of the attack move about unnaturally or lie extended instead of curled up in the cells. As the disease progresses they become flabby, die, and then decomposition sets in, which is shown by a yellowish appearance, and finally this color turns brown; if touched by a pin the putrid mass may be pulled out as a ropy tenacious string. Later, the ropy mass dries down to the bottom of the cell, leaving a brown scale which adheres to the wax. Bees occasionally become diseased and die, and *B. alvei* has been isolated from the ovaries of the queen bee.

B. alvei is a slender bacillus with slightly pointed ends, average 4.0μ in length and 1.0μ in breadth, forms chains, is Gram-positive, forms spores greater in diameter than the cells from which they are derived. Produces characteristic colonies in gelatin, which is subsequently liquefied and grows well on all the regular media.

B. larvæ is a slender rod, with a tendency to form chains; it forms spores, does not grow in gelatin broth or agar. It may be grown on media made from bee larvæ.

There are three methods of controlling the disease: *Stamping-out method.* In this method all affected bees, combs, and frames are destroyed and the hives thoroughly disinfected.

Starvation method. This process is the one usually followed in North America. It consists of removing the combs from the hives in the evening, shaking off the bees and supplying them with new comb foundation starters and allowing the bees to build on these for four days. These combs are then renewed, fresh comb foundation is again supplied, and the cure is usually completed. By this method of treatment all the diseased honey and brood are removed from the hives. All the old combs should he burned or made into wax.

Treatment by chemicals. This method is largely used in Europe; various chemicals, like carbolic acid, oil of eucalyptus, beta-naphthol,

and formic acid, are supplied to the bees in syrup, and these being antiseptic prevent the growth of the bacillus. In advanced cases, and when the queen bee is affected these methods usually fail. Disinfection with formalin gas has been used with good success.

MALIGNANT ŒDEMA.*

Bacillus œdematis maligni.

The disease occurs as the result of infection of wounds with dust or soil. The wounds must involve the tissues deeply as in compound fractures and deep cuts.

Any animal may be infected, although the dog and cat are said to be rather more resistant than others.

The incubation period is short, from one to two days as a rule.

The usual case begins with sudden spreading hæmorrhagic subcutaneous œdema and high fever. Practically no gas is formed. The fluid shows bacilli both with and without spores. Where soil contamination exists, mixed infections with gangrene are common.

Pasteur in 1877 and Koch and Gaffky in 1881 found and studied the organism and by passing from animal to animal established the causal relationship.

Glucose agar or glucose gelatin is inoculated with the suspected fluid, plates poured and placed under anaerobic conditions. The organism is 0.8μ to 1μ wide. Filaments may occur. The rods without spores are uniform in width with slightly squared ends. They are usually single, though pairs end to end are frequent and chains are also found. Oval spores are formed somewhat variable in their position, with a diameter usually larger than that of the vegetative rod, bringing about a spindle shape. Peritrichic flagella have been demonstrated, about twenty in number. It stains readily with aniline dyes, usually Gram-negative though somewhat variable and indefinite in this regard. Growth takes place at both 20° and 37°. It is a strict anaerobe. Like anaerobes in general it prefers the presence of a fermentable carbohydrate such as glucose. On agar the colonies are small, whitish, and irregular in outline. Gelatin and blood serum are digested, caseinogen is changed to casein which is then digested. In both protein and carbohydrate media a gas is produced which has a very disagreeable odor. The spores are very resistant.

This resistance accounts for its continuous presence in earth and dust and as a constant inhabitant of the intestine of animals, especially of herbivora.

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

Symptomatic Anthrax or Blackleg.*

Bacillus anthracis symptomatici.

Blackleg, black quarter, symptomatic anthrax, quarter ill, are synonyms employed to designate this disease.

Symptomatic anthrax is a very old disease and until recent years has been confused with true anthrax. This disease is widely distributed, affecting practically all countries and climates.

It is enzootic, never spreading widely or rapidly, and is often found in certain infected valleys and in relatively small areas. Young cattle, generally under two years of age, are most commonly affected, but sheep and goats are susceptible to this infection.

This disease is infectious by inoculation and usually acute. Subcutaneous and muscular tissues are especially affected. Its most prominent and characteristic feature is swelling of the front or hind quarters, never extending below the knee or hock. As a rule, the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax produces a very acute disease with high fever and severe constitutional disturbances.

The bacillus of symptomatic anthrax has been clearly demonstrated to be the specific cause of blackleg, infection occurring by inoculation. The period of incubation in the natural disease is uncertain. Under artificial inoculation this period varies from two to three days and is occasionally as short as one day.

This bacillus produces in culture a very active toxin. This toxin is quite resistant to heat. That the bacillus of symptomatic anthrax stimulates the production of antibodies and that the injury is done by toxins, is shown by the fact that immunity against virulent culture may be produced by treatment with presumably sterile filtrates of virulent cultures.

An antitoxin has been produced which contains a body capable of increasing the attraction by this bacillus for the leucocytes, thus protecting the infected animal.

The bacillus of symptomatic anthrax is rarely found in the blood before death; but is abundant in the affected muscle and overlying subcutaneous tissue. It also occurs in great numbers in the bile and intestinal contents.

Mucous membranes become congested and then very dark. Local

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

swellings occur which are at first sensitive and later insensitive and gaseous. There is usually developed a very marked swelling of a front or hind quarter or of the neck, with rapid formation of gas. The serous membranes, particularly the pleura and peritoneum, develop very severe inflammation with hæmorrhages and infiltrations and corresponding exudation in the cavities. General decomposition is rapid and the swelling may show a slight acetone odor. Muscle fibers show various degenerative changes. The abundant gases are mostly hydrogen and carbon dioxide.

B. anthracis symptomatici is about 3μ to 6μ long by 0.5μ to 0.8μ thick. This is a spore-bearing bacillus of drum-stick shape or spindle shape and is anaerobic. It grows best at about 37°. It stains either by the simple aniline dyes or by Gram's method. In artificial cultures, it sometimes shows long forms. This organism is motile for a short time, but soon loses this power, probably on account of the oxygen to which it is exposed. It shows well-defined flagella and develops spores. The specific organism may be demonstrated by the microscope in the blood without staining if done soon after death.

The bacillus of symptomatic anthrax is easily demonstrated in cover-glass smears from the affected tissues, and is very different from the bacteria of anthrax and hæmorrhagic septicæmia, the only diseases liable to be mistaken for blackleg. Anthrax gives a surface growth and is aerobic. Symptomatic anthrax gives no surface growth and is anaerobic. This organism may also be demonstrated by animal inoculation. The guinea pig serves well for this purpose; it is very susceptible to inoculation and gives a characteristic blackleg reaction in both symptoms and lesions. From the lesions thus produced the characteristic bacilli are easily demonstrated by the microscope.

Elimination of this virus from the body occurs chiefly in the various discharges, and especially in the manure and also in general decomposition of the carcass. Dissemination of this disease is chiefly if not exclusively by diseased carcasses and parts of carcasses and by the discharges.

Carcasses should be burned if possible; otherwise very deeply buried and covered with lime. Contaminated grounds, or stable floors must be thoroughly disinfected, for the infection is very persistent and difficult to eradicate except by most vigorous effort since the spores are very resistant to heat and drying. Preventive inoculation after the method of Arloing and Kitt is very satisfactory. Their vaccine consists of specially treated muscular tissues from the diseased part.

TETANUS.*

Bacillus tetani.

This disease is found throughout the world but more frequently in warmer than in colder climates. Certain localities are particularly affected. Man and domestic animals are susceptible.

The incubation period varies from a few hours in experimental inoculation of small animals, to several days or weeks in cases of natural infection in man.

The disease follows an incision of a punctured type with contamination by earth, especially in wounds of hands and feet.

It is characterized by tonic spasms of the voluntary musculature usually begining in some one group of muscles and finally becoming general. The parts first affected are, in cases artificially produced, those at the site of inoculation, but in natural infections in man it is more common for the disease to manifest itself first by stiffening of the muscles of the neck and face, producing what is ordinarily termed "lockjaw." In less severe infections in man local pain and stiffness are the first indications. The spasms occur in paroxysms which are spontaneous or excited by effort. They are more or less prolonged and exhausting and are accompanied by greater or less pain. Death results from general loss of strength or involvement of the respiratory muscles. The shorter the incubation period the higher the mortality. Few recover when the incubation period is less than ten days, about half the cases recover when the period is more than fifteen days.

The nerves may show injury as indicated by swelling and redness and microscopically nerve cells have been observed in a state of granular degeneration; there is a more or less distinct general congestion of the organs.

While lockjaw has been known clinically for centuries, it was not until 1884 that the infectious character was demonstrated when Carlo and Rattone and Nicolaier were successful in animal inoculations. Kitasato obtained pure cultures of the bacillus in 1889.

The organisms may be detected occasionally by examination of stained preparation of the pus from the wound. Pure cultures may be obtained by inoculating an alkaline dextrose broth with pus or tissue, incubating under anaerobic conditions for about forty-eight hours until

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

sporulation, then exposing half an hour to a temperature of 80° to kill all vegetative forms and subsequently making subcultures. If other spore-bearing bacteria are present considerable difficulty may be encountered. Subcutaneous inoculations of mice or guinea pigs is a good method for demonstrating the presence of the organism, but pure cultures should be combined with some aerobe (say *B. coli*) to secure results.

The *B. tetani* is about 2μ to 5μ in length by .3μ to .8μ in width with rounded ends. The vegetative rods are uniformly cylindrical but the terminal spores give a "drum stick" appearance (Fig. 111). The arrangement is usually single, but threads may occur especially in old cultures. The organism forms round terminal spores which have a

FIG. 111.—Tetanus bacilli showing end spores. (*After Kolle and Wassermann from Stitt.*)

diameter of 1μ to 1.5μ. The young bacilli are motile and possess 50 to 70 peritrichic flagella. Motility is lost with sporulation. The bacillus is stained by the aniline dyes and is Gram-positive. The spores are readily demonstrated by the special stains. The range of temperature for growth is from about 14° to 45° with an optimum about 37°. The organism is usually considered an obligate anaerobe though experimentally aerobic strains have been developed but with loss of pathogenic and toxogenic properties. Pure cultures do not develop in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide. Media for the cultivation of the bacillus should be slightly alkaline and should contain for best growth about 2 per cent of glucose or 1.5 per cent sodium formate. The addition of pieces of fresh raw sterile tissue is valuable. On agar at 37° colonies appear in forty-eight hours which show microscopically, a mass of tangled threads resembling colonies of *B. subtilis* or *Bact. anthracis*. In broth a cloudiness is produced in twenty-four to thirty-six hours with the development of gas and a very disagreeable odor. In gelatin the colonies develop more slowly than on agar and show liquefaction. In old stab

cultures a pine tree growth occurs. Gas is usually produced. In milk growth occurs without coagulation. Acid is produced in some carbohydrate media. Gas is produced during the action upon protein and consists chiefly of carbon dioxide but also of hydrogen sulphide and certain volatile organic compounds commonly found in putrefactions. The tetanus bacillus forms two soluble toxins, tetano-lysin, and tetano-spasmin. The former is less stable and dissolves red blood-corpuscles. The latter produces the characteristic spasms of the muscles. This poison may be obtained after one to two weeks growth in slightly alkaline salt-peptone-bouillon under anaerobic conditions at 37.5° and separated by filtration through porcelain filters. When taken by the mouth the toxin is ineffective, given intravenously it produces a generalized tetanus, while after subcutaneous injection the disease begins with local spasms. The central nervous system is reached by ascent of the toxin along the motor nerves nearest the point of inoculation. A dose of toxin injected directly into the nerve trunk of an animal may produce a fatal result when it is innocuous intravenously. The spores often withstand 80° for one hour and live steam for about ten minutes. Direct sunlight destroys them in time. They survive drying for several years and resist the ordinary disinfectants for a considerable length of time, 1:1000 mercuric chloride for three hours, 5 per cent carbolic acid for about ten hours.

Practically all mammalia are susceptible to tetanus though rats are but slightly so. Very minute doses of toxin suffice to kill mice and guinea pigs. Birds show but little susceptibility and the hen is said to be three hundred thousand times more resistant to tetanus toxin than the horse. Reptiles and amphibians are practically immune to very large doses when kept at low temperature.

Natural infections probably do not occur without the presence of other microörganisms. The bacillus and its associated material gains entrance through some break in the tissues. The organism is practically confined to the site of inoculation, but it is sometimes found in the blood and internal organs after death.

Against toxin-freed cultures phagocytosis is probably the process which overcomes infection. The toxin is highly antigenic and animals can be immunized against it in a manner similar to that for diphtheria toxin.

While direct infection of one person from another has occurred, cases of human tetanus are very rarely responsible for others.

Horses are chiefly responsible for its distribution, the tetanus bacillus being common in manure, which accounts for the occurrence of tetanus in soil-contaminated injuries.

Cattle probably are also carriers of the bacillus. Tetanus antitoxin as a cure has been a keen disappointment, especially if symptoms have

fully developed after a short incubation period. Very large dosage, however, may have the desired effect. In prophylaxis the antitoxic serum is widely and successfully used in all suspicious cases, and in Fourth of July injuries in particular.

Typhoid Fever.*

Bacillus typhosus.

Typhoid fever is one of the most widespread of bacterial diseases and is found endemic in practically all the countries of the world. Epidemics frequently occur because of the infection of some local public utility related to food or drinks, particularly water or milk.

Typhoid fever occurs naturally only in man. Intraperitoneal inoculation of susceptible animals may result in death with acute peritonitis, but lesions are in no way specific and can be produced by the colon bacillus.

The period of incubation varies ordinarily from five to twenty-one days, with an average of fourteen days.

The first week of the disease in man begins with a train of rather indefinite symptoms such as headache, loss of appetite, digestive disturbances, lassitude, and sleeplessness. Nose bleed is a peculiar and rather constant feature. The temperature and pulse gradually rise until by the end of five to seven days the former has become high, 103° F. to 104° F. and constant. The temperature continues thus through the second week during which a gradual stupor and occasional delirium, diarrhoea, and enlargement of the spleen occur. The pulse is often dicrotic and there is a rash consisting of isolated flattened rose-colored macules or spots which may be few or numerous and occur in successive crops. During the third week in mild cases these symptoms gradually subside. In severer forms no abatement is shown and complications are liable to occur. The fourth week shows beginning convalescence in the typical case.

The characteristic pathological findings are swelling and ulceration of the lymphoid structure of the lower part of the small intestine best seen in the Peyer's patches of the ileum just above the ileo-cecal valve. The mesenteric glands and spleen are hyperæmic. Parenchymatous degenerations more or less severe may be found in other organs. The

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

characteristic histological feature is the crowding of the lymph spaces by proliferated endothelial cells.

Perforation and hemorrhage of the bowel, peritonitis, myocarditis, thrombosis, etc., render typhoid fever a dangerous disease. The fatality varies considerably; at one time estimated at 25 per cent, it has been brought down to 10 to 15 per cent by modern methods of treatment and has been given in Minnesota as low as 4 per cent.

Eberth found the organism in 1880 by the examination of the mesenteric glands and spleen of fatal cases. Gaffky cultivated it in 1884. The causal relationship has been a matter of gradual acceptance through evidence furnished by the study of such immunity processes as agglutination, bacteriolysis, and complement deviation, and finally by the high percentage of positive blood cultures. Conclusive evidence is afforded by the development of typhoid fever following the ingestion of pure cultures with suicidal intent.

The agglutination reaction of Gruber and Widal is universally employed in diagnostic laboratories. The blood serum of typhoid patients, after a certain period of the disease, will cause a characteristic clumping of the bacilli when mixed with pure cultures. The fresh serum from a clot may be used, or, more conveniently, dried blood from which a watery extract can be made. In positive cases the reaction is present in at least the one-fiftieth dilution and usually in the one-hundredth or higher dilutions. The culture employed should be 18 to 24 hours old; it should be freely agglutinable and show no artificial clumping, characters not possessed by all strains, especially those recently isolated. Cultures killed by a small percentage of carbolic acid have been recommended for constancy in place of the living organisms. When the microscopic method is used the reaction should be distinct in about one hour.

An immune body capable of binding complement in the presence of typhoid antigen is said to occur in typhoid sera before the agglutinative property appears.

The detection of the typhoid bacillus in the circulating blood has recently been very widely successful and furnishes the best support for the diagnosis of the disease. While blood culture may be hardly practical in public health laboratories, it has become a routine measure in the modern hospital. Blood is taken aseptically from a vein and about 1 to 5 c.c. is introduced into culture media, of which fluid media containing ox-bile and agar plating media containing glucose have been most strongly

recommended. The fluid media are used in 100 to 500 c.c. amounts, which serves to dilute the antibacterial properties of the blood while the bile acts as an anticoagulant and possibly also as an antibactericidal measure. Plating lessens the diffusion of the antibacterial properties and thus favors growth.

The urine and fæces have sometimes to be examined for the presence of *B. typhosus*. It then becomes necessary to differentiate the colonies of this bacillus from those of the colon group. For this purpose many special media have been devised, some depending on the motility of the

FIG. 112.—Bacillus of typhoid fever. ×1000. (*After Williams.*)

typhoid bacillus to form a different shaped colony in suitable soft media, others based on the fact that some substances such as fuchsin, crystal violet, malachite green, etc., inhibit the growth of associated organisms while permitting the typhoid bacillus to develop more or less luxuriantly.

As found in pure cultures, the bacillus is about 1μ to 3.5μ in length and .5μ to .8μ in width (Fig. 112). Filaments are sometimes found several times the length of the single organism. It is quite regular in shape, straight with rounded ends. The bacilli usually occur singly; occasionally two may be attached end to end for a short time. There are ten to fourteen comparatively stout flagella about two or three times the length of the organism peritrichic in their arrangement. There are no capsules and no spores. They stain with all aniline dyes, and not infrequently exhibit more deeply staining areas at the poles. They are Gram-negative. Biological and Bio-

chemical characters.—The minimum temperature is about 10° the optimum 37°, maximum 40 to 41°. It is aerobic and facultatively anaerobic. The slight preference for oxygen is probably of little account when such sugars as glucose are present. The bacillus is not very sensitive to the reaction of media and will grow in the presence of either slightly alkaline or acid reaction. Alkaline substances are produced from peptone. Acid is formed from dextrose, levulose, galactose, mannit, maltose, and dextrin. Lactose and saccharose remain unchanged. Gas is never formed. It is the rule that the *Bacillus typhosus* does not form indol; certain strains, however, form a trace. The toxins of the bacillus have been very widely studied and several different opinions are held with regard to their nature. Most evidence supports the idea that the poisons are only set free by the destruction of the bacterial bodies. This may be brought about experimentally by various means such as the use of lytic or bactericidal sera, by the disintegration occurring in old cultures, by extraction under great pressures, by triturating after freezing in liquid air and by emulsifying cultures, sterilizing by heat, then extracting with salt solution. These endotoxins, however obtained outside the host, have been found to produce by injection into animals only lytic and bactericidal sera and not an antitoxin. Mord recently, however, some observers claim to have shown in comparatively young cultures the prescence of a substance which upon injection into animals yields an antitoxin and thus comports itself after the manner of a true diffusible or soluble toxin. Agar streak cultures show an abundant filiform whitish or bluish-gray translucent growth with no special characteristics. Broth is uniformly and moderately clouded and only occasionally a delicate pellicle may develop. Gelatin colonies are bluish-white in color, transparent and with somewhat notched margins. Stab cultures show more growth at the surface, while in the depth the growth is filiform and less abundant. The medium is not liquefied. Milk is not coagulated. In litmus milk there may be a trace of acid formed at first, followed by a return to neutral or very slightly alkaline reaction. Potato was at one time considered a very valuable differential medium. The growth of the bacillus upon it is quite abundant, glistening, but invisible, when the potato is acid. A more alkaline reaction allows a rather heavy yellowish growth indistinguishable from *B. coli*. Special media are used in the cultivation of the typhoid bacillus, chiefly for differential purposes. The cultural features on these do not show sufficiently striking characters to make it worth while to review the many that have been devised. Specific agglutinating and bacteriolytic sera as well as the complement binding reaction are valuable aids in identifying the bacillus. Resistance to heat and light is not different from that of the average non-spore-bearing species. Its thermal death-point is about 56° for ten minutes, 60° for one minute. Exceptionally resistant forms have been found alive in ice after three months. Sometimes the bacilli will remain viable for a month after drying. At other times they die out rapidly. They have been found to be viable for ten days in distilled water, while pure sodium chloride dissolved exerted an unfavorable influence. In fæces the length of life is from a few hours to several days, or even as high as five months in winter. Their life in privies and cesspools is ordinarily brief but has been found to extend for thirty days. Of the non-spore-formers the bacillus appears to be rather more resistant than the average but succumbs within five minutes to 1:5000 mercuric chloride or 5 per cent phenol.

The organism enters the body through the mouth by means of infected fingers, food, milk, and water, etc.

On reaching the intestine the organism probably propagates to some extent before penetrating the intestinal mucosa. It enters into the blood stream and is disseminated throughout the body. According to the endotoxin theory it must slowly be dissolved by the lytic substances which have been gradually accumulating in response to the primary intoxication.

The organisms have been cultivated from the rose spots and have been found in vomit without the presence of blood, and in sputum. Typhoid meningitis and osteitis occur occasionally. At autopsy the spleen and gall bladder yield the highest number of positive cultures. It is of interest to note too that while the highest percentage (89–90 per cent) of positive blood cultures occurs in the first week and that the percentage diminishes from then on, the number of positive findings in the fæces, on the other hand, runs in the opposite direction.

Generally speaking, one attack confers immunity. Upon what antibodies immunity and recovery depends is a matter of controversy.

The elimination of the bacilli from the body will largely depend upon the stage of the disease, since the blood, especially early in the illness, practically always contains the specific organism, epistasis is not an unimportant feature as a possible means of disseminating the germs. The bacilli can also escape in the fæces, urine, sputum, and vomit.

In the control of this disease the best place to begin is at the bedside. Disinfection of all excreta and of everything which comes in contact with the patient should be rigorously carried out and in the case of the fæces and urine should be ideally continued until examination can be made showing absence of the organism. It has been estimated that as high as 5 per cent of convalescents continue to excrete living typhoid bacilli for varying periods from months to years after the disease; the longest time noted has been thirty-seven years.

The recognition of typhoid carriers will depend absolutely on the finding of the specific germ in the feces or urine as the case may be. Where there are large numbers of suspects, the opsonic index is claimed to be an aid in exclusion of the improbable ones, as well as the agglutinin reaction.

In a general way, prompt recognition of the source of infection such as milk, polluted water, bacilli-carriers, etc., together with instruction of

the individual and the public are often effective in limiting and ending an epidemic.

While a great many sera have been used therapeutically with some success, prophylaxis promises more where it can be widely employed as in armies and navies. The artificial immunity is brought about by injection of dead cultures. A difference of about 25 per cent has been noted between the percentage of cases in vaccinated and unvaccinated persons.

Asiatic Cholera.*

Microspira comma.

The disease is endemic in parts of India whence epidemics have spread throughout the world. America has been visited by several epidemics and at the sea ports more frequently, chiefly New Orleans.

The disease occurs naturally only in man. The incubation period is from part of a day to ten days, usually about three days.

In its most characteristic form the disease begins with few or no prodromata. It is marked by fever, sudden onset of purging and vomiting followed by cramps and severe depression. Evacuations finally become almost a colorless liquid, "rice-water stools." The cramps may occur in the whole muscular system most frequently in the legs and are often extremely painful. A stage of complete collapse finally occurs. There are, however, many variations from these typical cases. The mortality is usually given at from 45 to 50 per cent.

After death there is found extensive acute degenerative changes in the kidneys; the gastro-intestinal tract shows marked changes in the lining membrane which may be necrotic, sodden and in some places stripped away.

The cholera vibrios may sometimes be seen in enormous numbers in smears from typical stools. For a positive diagnosis, however, the organism must be cultivated. The usual method is to inoculate a 1 per cent peptone solution from the stool, incubating at 37° for from four to eight hours and sowing plates from the very surface of the liquid, either a gelatin or alkaline agar or both. The vibrios are 3μ to 5μ long by about 0.4μ wide, and are curved slightly like a comma or sometimes in a half circle (Fig. 113). These comma forms are best seen in broth cultures. The ends are usually rounded. In young cultures the organisms are usually arranged singly, occasionally two may be found end to end in the form of an "S". There is no capsule,

* Prepared by Edward Fidlar.

and no spore formation. There is a single terminal flagellum, and the organism is exceedingly motile. Does not stain as readily with the ordinary aniline dyes as many other bacteria. Fuchsin gives the best result. It is Gram-negative. The optimum temperature for growth is 37° with a minimum of 8° and a maximum of 42°. Plain Agar—moist, shining, grayish-yellow, and rather thin and transparent as compared with the colon type of colony. A rapid growth takes place in broth, causing a uniform clouding with a more or less well-developed pellicle. In gelatin plates colonies are visible in twenty-four hours and are round, even, and yellowish-white, later they become irregular and their surface presents fine refractile granules; within forty-eight hours the colonies are found to be sinking into a small round pit due to liquefaction of the medium (Fig. 114). Concentric rings may appear as liquefaction progresses from day to day. In old cultures the liquefaction assumes a funnel or turnip shape with an air bubble at the surface due to evaporation. Growth in milk occurs without any visible change in the medium. At 37°, on potato, an abundant moist brownish growth. Blood serum is liquefied rapidly. The vibrios prefer the presence of oxygen, it is

FIG. 113.—*Microspira comma.* ×1000. (*After Williams.*)

probable that organisms grow under practically anaerobic conditions in the intestine. The reaction of all media must be very distinctly alkaline and even very small amounts of acid are inhibitive. Neither gas nor acid is formed. The production of indol and the formation of nitrites from nitrates occurs regularly. The addition of sulphuric acid is sufficient to give the nitroso-indol reaction, which from its association with this bacterium has been called the cholera red reaction. No pigment is produced. Majority of freshly isolated cultures have hæmolytic powers. It is generally considered that there is only an endotoxin, but it is strongly asserted by some that a soluble toxin is formed. Thermal death-points are 60° for ten minutes, 95° to 100° for one minute. Vibrios are quite sensitive to low temperature and at most have been found viable in ice only after a few days. The vibrios are quite susceptible to the ordinary disinfectants.

The cholera organism gains entrance through the mouth.

Having succeeded in passing the acid secretions of the stomach the vibrios probably develop with great rapidity in the small intestine.

The peculiar conditions favorable to the development of the organism in the intestine are unknown. A previous gastro-intestinal disturbance is probably necessary even though slight.

The organisms have rarely been demonstrated in blood cultures. The gall bladder gives the highest percentage of positive cultures.

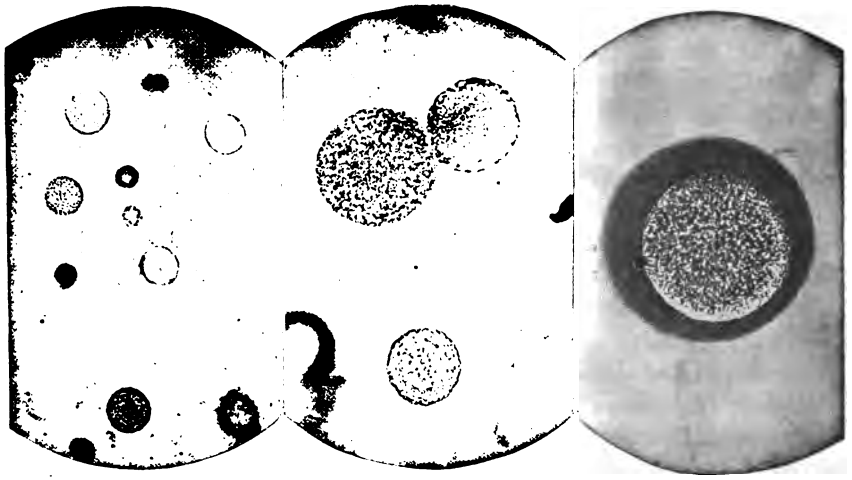


FIG. 114.—Microspira comma. Colonies on gelatin plates. *a*, 24 hours old; *b*, 30 hours old; *c*, 48 hours old. (*After Fraenkel and Pfeiffer from Williams.*)

Highly lytic and agglutinating sera can be developed experimentally, but little or no antitoxic power can be demonstrated.

Protective inoculation has shown considerably more encouraging results than serum therapy.

The cholera vibrios are eliminated in the discharges. Water and uncooked food becoming contaminated with cholera excreta are the chief means by which the epidemic is spread, so that its epidemiology is similar to that of typhoid fever.

DISEASES OF UNKNOWN CAUSE.*

SCARLET FEVER, MEASLES, GERMAN MEASLES, DUKES DISEASE, SMALLPOX, CHICKENPOX, MUMPS.†

These diseases constitute a group the actual biological causes of which are unknown, yet which show analogies to diseases, the causes of which are known, so close as to make tenable the hypothesis that they are due to similar causes.

Mumps is in a class by itself, its characteristics, well known to the laity, marking it off from the others sharply. Like the others it is infectious; it is derived only from a preceding case; it has a more or less definite incubation period (i.e. an interval between the date of infection and the first development of symptoms, during which ordinary health is enjoyed), and a prodromal stage (i.e. a period in which fever, headache, and other more or less marked constitutional symptoms exist without any marked characteristic symptom). Then appears the swelling of the parotid salivary glands just in front of the ears with some pain. The symptoms usually amend after a few days and the patient goes on to full recovery. There is no rash nor any great disturbance of the intestinal tract or internal organs.

Smallpox and chickenpox together form a group quite often confused clinically, especially in the early stages and especially when smallpox is prevalent in mild form. They have incubation periods, averaging about twelve days, in smallpox varying little from this period, in chickenpox varying widely from it. Smallpox has rather severe prodromes, backache, headache, fever, and sorethroat, the rash appearing on the third or fourth day. Chickenpox usually has light or no prodromes, the rash appearing on the same day or within twenty-four hours, as a rule. In both diseases the face, chest, back, arms, hands, legs, and feet are likely to show eruption, but chickenpox tends to show the greatest number of spots "under cover," i.e. on the parts usually covered by clothing, while smallpox tends to show the majority upon the face, neck, arms, wrists, and hands, rather than on the body. The skin lesions themselves differ very markedly, the typical lesions of chickenpox being superficial, thin-walled, high, rounded, and filled with clear liquid, those of smallpox

* Arranged alphabetically except group of diseases placed first.
† Prepared by H. W. Hill.

being deep-seated, tense, opaque, covered with a tough skin. There are many other points of distinction, and any one familiar with the two diseases can hardly fall into error when dealing with typical cases at whatever stage they are encountered. To the layman's eye, however, the two are often indistinguishable.

Scarlet fever, measles, German measles, and Duke's disease are often likewise confused by the laity and even by physicians who have not had opportunities for extensive study.

German measles is clinically related to true measles somewhat as chickenpox is to smallpox, i.e. they are wholly distinct diseases yet showing characteristics easily confused on superficial consideration. Dukes disease is perhaps not a distinct entity; much has been said on this point and a satisfactory decision will probably never be reached until the causative agents have been found. It may be described briefly for clinical purposes as a scarlatiniform variety of German measles.

Scarlet fever has an average incubation period of about five days, but varies somewhat widely from this. The prodromes are those usual to all these infections—headache, fever, and sore throat, but the latter is especially severe. Within twenty-four hours the rash appears usually on the chest first, a bright scarlet superficial flush, extending rapidly over the body.

In measles the incubation period is longer, averaging nine days, almost without any variation. The prodromes, headache, fever, and sore throat are accompanied by very marked coryza and photophobia, catarrh and "cold on the chest."

The rash appears about the fourth day, appearing on the face and back but rapidly extending. It is darker, bluer, and deeper than the scarlet fever rash. Koplik's spots appear on the buccal membrane early in the disease.

In German measles the prodromes are so indefinite that it is difficult to determine their length; very commonly the rash is the first thing noticed. It appears on the face, chest, back, and arms as a light subcuticular mottling (measles type) or a more uniform pink flush (scarlatiniform or Dukes type); with this rash the eyes show some injection and slight photophobia develops. The attack passes off quickly, without complications.

Canine Distemper.*

This disease (Maladie des jeunes chiens; Fr.) is so widespread that the great majority of adult dogs may be regarded as having suffered from an attack and recovered. It is practically confined to very young animals and, so far as known, no species except dogs are susceptible. The disease is attended by more or less extensive coryza with a discharge from the eyes. There is an eruption on the skin and frequently nervous disorders of various kinds. The animal becomes emaciated and may die from bronchial pneumonia. No visible organism has been found to be the cause of this disease, but Carré has reported that he has succeeded in passing the infectious agent in nasal discharges through earthen filters, the filtrate reproducing distemper in characteristic form. Some attempts have been made to produce a protective serum by the injection of the infectious material into animals which have recovered from the disease.

Cattle Plague.*

This disease (rinderpest), which is probably the severest and most contagious of all cattle diseases, is characterized by high fever and lesions of the intestinal tract. It does not exist in the United States but is found in Europe, S. Africa and Asia. Extensive outbreaks have occurred in the Philippine Islands. The cause of cattle plague has never been isolated and the indications are that it is caused by an invisible microörganism. Cattle plague was the first disease in which the process of "hyperimmunization" was practised. Immune cattle receive massive injections of blood from diseased cattle. After this treatment the blood serum of the immune is used to protect non-immunes. Enormous quantities of this serum are prepared and applied yearly by the British government in India.

Chicken Pest.*

This disease (Hühner Pest; Ger.: Peste aviaire; Fr.) of fowls, which is to be distinguished from chicken cholera, is not known in the United States, but has caused extensive losses of fowls in Europe, particularly in Italy. Affected chickens cease eating, the feathers become ruffled

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

and the comb darker in color. The lesions found at autopsy are not constant, but a pericarditis is usually seen. There may be, also, congestion of the lungs, liver, and kidneys. The intestinal lesions are not as marked as is the case in chicken cholera.

Chicken pest has been shown to be due to an invisible microörganism which is present in the heart blood and in practically all of the organs of the body. Most fowls are susceptible; guinea pigs and mice are refractory to the disease. The virus passes through Berkefeld and Chamberland F cylinders; it is quite resistant to drying but is destroyed by an exposure of half an hour to a temperature of 60°. Several authorities have passed the filtered virus through four or more hens successively, thus demonstrating positively that the filtered virus is capable of multiplication.

Contagious Bovine Pleuro-pneumonia.*

This disease affects cattle only; it is highly infectious and produces an inflammation of the lungs and pleural membranes. Thirty years ago bovine pleuro-pneumonia was quite prevalent in the United States but has since been eradicated through the efforts of the Federal Bureau of Animal Industry in coöperation with State authorities. It still exists in European countries.

The microörganism of bovine pleuro-pneumonia is generally classed among the invisible viruses, though unlike the other organisms of this class it has been cultivated artificially and is just visible at a magnification of 2000 diameters. The artificial cultivation of this virus was accomplished by Roux and Nocard through the use of the very ingenious "collodion sac method." A small amount of virus from a diseased cow was placed within a small thin-walled sac of collodion; after being hermetically sealed the sac was placed in the peritoneal cavity of a rabbit where it remained for several weeks. At the end of this time the unbroken sac was removed and the previously clear fluid within was found to be slightly opalescent. Microscopic examination revealed numberless minute motile bodies so small, however, that their exact form could not be determined. Later the organism was successfully cultivated outside of the animal body in a specially prepared bouillon. These cultures produced the disease when inoculated into susceptible cattle. When the virus is diluted it will pass through the Berkefeld and Chamberland F cylinders, but not through the Chamberland B cylinder.

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

COWPOX, HORSEPOX, AND SHEEPPOX.*

Variola refers to a condition of disease in man and animals, characterized by fever and the appearance of skin eruptions which successively assume the form of papules, vesicles and pustules. The disease is frequently found in the human species (smallpox), cattle (*variola vaccinia*, cowpox), horses (*variola equinæ*, horsepox) and sheep (*variola ovina*, sheeppox). It is possible that some other species may be susceptible.

On account of the fact that vaccination of man with virus from cases of cowpox affords remarkable protection against smallpox, it appears reasonable to believe that cowpox virus or smallpox vaccine is a modified form of smallpox virus. This fact, together with the occasional positive results of various experiments in which other species of animals have at times evidenced susceptibility to cowpox virus, strongly suggests the possible etiological relationship of the diseases in different species to each other and to smallpox in man. However, conclusive proof supporting this suggested relationship does not exist. The specific causative factor of smallpox or of cowpox is not known.

Cowpox is a very common disease, perhaps having been prevalent in England and Europe for centuries. Its presence has frequently been observed in various countries since 1796 when Jenner contributed to the world his remarkable discovery relative to smallpox vaccination.

Many attempts have been made to isolate the specific causative factor of cowpox. Early investigators frequently secured mixed and pure cultures of various organisms, including different species of micrococci, streptococci and bacilli from vaccine lymph. None of these organisms were peculiar to the virus, and at present there exists no definite evidence that the infectious agent of vaccine lymph is of bacterial nature. Pfeiffer, Guanieri, Plimmer, Councilman, MacGrath, Brinckerhoff and others, after observing the presence of apparent cellular elements, or relatively large flattened bodies in vaccine lymph, have suggested the possible protozoan nature of the causative agent. Attempts have been made, with more or less success, to cultivate these bodies in collodion capsules in the peritoneal cavities of experimental animals. According to some investigators the virus has been passed through a Chamberland filter. The failure conclusively to discover the causative factor, according to the present methods, may be due to the incultivability or unstainability of the specific agent.

* Prepared by W. E. King.

Cowpox is characterized by eruptions which usually occur on the skin of the teats and udder. The lymph contained in these pustules is transferred to other animals by the hands of the milker and through other possible means of dissemination. The chief channel of infection appears to be through an abrasion in the skin. The period of incubation of cowpox is about two days. The virus possesses relatively weak resistance to heat, light and chemicals. The control of the disease chiefly depends upon precautions relative to the transmission of the virus on the hands of the milker from infected to healthy cows.

Horsepox may be diagnosed by the appearance of the characteristic pustules usually upon the skin, nasal mucosa and buccal membrane.

Sheeppox is characterized by the presence of the typical skin eruptions, following a rise of temperature.

DENGUE.*

This disease (break-bone fever) of man occurs in all parts of the world. It is characterized by a sudden attack, intense prostration and severe pains in the muscles and joints. The fever during the attack shows a characteristic curve. There is a sudden rise of and maintained temperature for several days. Then a remission and a second rise of temperature which is less than the first.

Our knowledge of the cause of this disease rests chiefly upon researches of Ashburn and Craig (The Journ. of Infectious Diseases, Vol. X, p. 440, 1907). These authors conclude that dengue is not contagious in the ordinary sense but that it is transmitted through the bite of the mosquito (*Culex fatigans*). No visible organism could be demonstrated in either fresh or stained specimens of blood from patients affected with dengue although such blood was capable of producing a typical attack of dengue when inoculated intravenously into healthy men. The authors likewise show that blood from a case of dengue retained its infectiveness after passage through a filter made of diatomaceous earth. The organism of dengue fever is therefore probably of ultramicroscopic size.

FOOT-AND-MOUTH DISEASE.*

Foot-and-mouth disease is primarily a disease of cattle, though the other domestic animals and man may be attacked. The disease is very

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

contagious and is characterized by the eruption of vesicles in the mouths, on the udders and on the skin surrounding the hoofs of cattle. It is very prevalent in European countries. There have been two outbreaks in the United States both of which were promptly eradicated by vigorous repressive measures instituted by the Federal authorities.

The cause of this disease is an invisible microörganism which exists in the lymph from the vesicles which form in the mouths and on the feet of cattle. This virus has never been cultivated artificially. It passes through the Berkefeld cylinder but not through the finer-pored Kitasato filters; it is quickly destroyed by formaldehyde, carbolic acid and similar disinfectants.

The disease is readily transmitted from one animal to another by contact and the contagion may persist for some time in the manure, or straw from infected stables. The milk of infected cows has been known to produce the disease in children.

Animals which recover from an attack remain immune for a short time only; it is therefore not surprising that no satisfactory means of artificial immunization has been devised.

Hog Cholera.*

The first recorded outbreak of hog cholera in the United States occurred in Ohio in the year 1833 and it now exists in practically all sections of this country. Hog cholera is most prevalent in the late summer and fall, although outbreaks are reported at all seasons of the year. All races of hogs are susceptible and the average mortality is about 80 per cent. In the United States alone the losses from hog cholera are estimated to average at least $15,000,000 annually. Hogs only are attacked. This disease is supposed to have been introduced into the United States through the importation of hogs from Europe, where it is known under the names "swine fever" (Br.), "schweinepest" (Ger.), and "peste du porc" (Fr.).

The essential features of hog cholera may be briefly summarized as follows: Extreme contagiousness. Symptoms of severe illness accompanied by fever, loss of appetite, weakness and diarrhœa Hemorrhagic lesions in the various organs and lymphatic glands and round button-like ulcers in the large intestine. Immunity in hogs which recover.

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

The etiology of hog cholera has long been the subject of scientific controversy, but it is now generally acknowledged that the cause of this disease is an invisible microörganism which exists in the blood, the internal organs, and the urine of infected hogs. The fact that this disease is caused by an invisible microörganism was demonstrated as follows:*

FIG. 115.—Hemorrhagic points on kidneys of hog-cholera hog. (Original.)

The blood serum of hogs infected with hog cholera acquired in the natural way is very infectious for non-immune hogs, the disease being readily transmitted by the subcutaneous injection of small amounts. The disease produced by this subcutaneous injection is identical in all respects with the disease as it occurs in nature. If, now, this infectious serum is diluted with normal salt solution or with ordinary bouillon (1 to 10) and passed through either a Berkefeld or Chamberland filter, the

* Bulletin 72, Bureau of Animal Industry, U. S. Dept. Agriculture, 1905.

filtrate, though free from all visible microörganisms, still retains the power to produce hog cholera by subcutaneous injection. The disease which is produced in this manner by the filtered hog cholera serum is identical in all respects with the disease produced by the unfiltered serum and also with the disease as it occurs in nature. The hogs which receive the filtered serum present the symptoms and lesions of hog cholera. The disease set up in this manner in very contagious and hogs which recover from the inoculation of filtered serum are thereafter immune against hog cholera. By repeated inoculation and filtration this virus may serve to infect successively a large number of hogs.

The invisible virus of hog cholera, in view of its ability to pass through the Chamberland B filter, must be regarded as one of the smallest of the invisible microörganisms. It has never been cultivated artificially, hence, aside from its disease-producing qualities, we have little knowledge concerning it. We do know, however, that the virus is quite resistant to such common disinfectants as carbolic acid and bichloride of mercury and that it is quickly destroyed by a 3 per cent solution of *liquor cresolis compositus* (U. S. P.) as well as by a 5 per cent solution of antiformin. When preserved in sealed glass bulbs in a cool dark place, the virus retains its activity for six months or longer. Rabbits, guinea pigs, and other small animals are entirely insusceptible to inoculations of the filtered virus in amounts which would prove fatal to hogs.

The virus of hog cholera is known to be thrown off from the body through the urine, and it is probably also eliminated through the feces. Therefore any agency which would serve to carry a particle of dirt from infected hog yards might be the means of disseminating the virus. As many sick hogs find their way to the public stock yards through shipment by rail, all stock cars and stock yards are to be regarded as permanently infected. It appears to be impracticable to prevent the spread of the disease by methods of quarantine and disinfection, owing to the impossibility of enforcing such measures thoroughly. It has recently been found that a protective serum against hog cholera may be produced by "hyperimmunization." The process consists in giving immune hogs large doses of blood taken from hogs sick of hog cholera. As a result of this blood treatment their serum acquires the power to protect non-immunes. Injections of serum from hyperimmunized animals confers a passive immunity, while the simultaneous injection of serum with a small amount of virus produces an active immunity.

BACILLUS CHOLERÆ SUIS (*B. suipestifer*).—No description of the etiology of hog cholera would be complete without a reference to this bacterium which was long regarded as the cause of hog cholera. It is found after death in the blood and organs of the majority of hogs affected with hog cholera and in this rôle of secondary invader it no doubt tends to increase the mortality from the disease. *B. choleræ suis* is a small, very actively motile, non-spore-bearing bacillus with rounded ends, which stain readily with the ordinary aniline dyes. It does not stain by Gram's method. This organism is easily cultivated on the ordinary media; gelatin is not liquefied; milk is not coagulated but acquires an acid reaction at first; this changes after a week or more to an alkaline reaction. Gas is produced in bouillon containing dextrose, but lactose and saccharose are not affected. Rabbits and guinea pigs succomb within four to ten days to small doses of this organism. Hogs are much more refractory. It is only after the administration of large doses that they show any symptoms of illness following subcutaneous injections. By feeding pure cultures of *B. choleræ suis* or by injecting these intravenously a considerable number of hogs will succumb and at autopsy present lesions which correspond quite closely to those seen in naturally acquired cases of hog cholera. There are, however, certain important differences between the disease produced by *B. choleræ suis* and the natural disease hog cholera. For example, hogs infected with *B. choleræ suis* do not transmit the disease to other hogs by contact. The blood of hogs infected with *B. choleræ suis* does not produce disease when injected subcutaneously into other hogs, and, in addition, hogs which recover from illness produced by injections or feedings of pure cultures of *B. choleræ suis* have no immunity against the natural disease hog cholera.

HORSE SICKNESS.*

This disease affects the equine species only and appears to be confined to South Africa. It is most prevalent in summer and appears to be transmitted by the bite of an insect, as it is not contagious but may be communicated to susceptible horses through blood inoculations. This disease manifests itself by producing severe inflammatory changes in the lungs and in the tissues of the head and neck and is attended by a high mortality. No visible organism has been found which will produce horse sickness and as McFadyean and Nocard have shown that the virus is capable of passing through the finest bacteria-proof filters, this disease is probably caused

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

by an invisible microörganism. Blood containing the microörganisms of horse sickness may be kept in sealed bulbs in the dark at room temperature for more than two years without losing its infectiveness. The virus is quite resistant to drying and may survive heating for ten minutes at a temperature of 75°.

Infantile Paralysis.*

As indicated by its name, this disease (epidemic poliomyelitis) is usually seen in children. It has long been known to exist in both Europe and America, occurring generally in sporadic form. During the last decade, however, its prevalence has greatly increased and a number of well-defined epidemics have been reported. Though the character of this malady long ago led to the belief that it was caused by a microörganism, this fact was not definitely proven until the year 1909 when Landsteiner and Popper in Germany, and Straus and Huntoon and Flexner and Lewis in the United States, succeeded in transmitting the infection to monkeys. So far as is now known, none of the lower animals except monkeys are susceptible.

The symptoms and effects of infantile paralysis are extremely variable. Paralysis is by no means constant, many cases being very mild and thus possibly escaping detection. In the severer forms of the disease paralyses of various types and degrees are seen. When recovery takes place the paralysis may appear to improve only to be followed by atrophy of certain groups of muscles, resulting in deformity and permanent lameness. These effects are caused by the destruction of certain nerve centers in the spinal cord.

As stated above, the microbial origin of infantile paralysis was first demonstrated by the inoculation of monkeys, Flexner and Lewis having successfully carried the infection through a long series of monkeys by successive intracranial injections of an emulsion of the spinal cord taken from infected animals. The microörganism passes through the Chamberland and Berkefeld filters with little or no loss in disease-producing power. It has never been cultivated artificially nor recognized under the microscope. The virus withstands freezing or drying for long periods of time but is quickly destroyed by heating at a temperature of 50°. It is likewise quickly killed by the ordinary disinfectants. Monkeys may be infected by the subcutaneous, intraperitoneal, intravenous, or intracranial injection

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

of material from an infected spinal cord; but attempts at infection through feeding have been unsuccessful. The virus appears to be eliminated from the body through the nasal mucous membranes.

It appears probable that one attack of the disease protects from a second attack. No cases of a second attack have been reported. Furthermore, monkeys which have recovered from the infection appear to be entirely immune as shown by Flexner. Active immunity in monkeys has been established by repeated infections of gradually increased amounts of the virus. The blood of human beings and of monkeys that have recovered from an attack of the disease is capable of neutralizing a certain amount of the virus. This protective quality of the blood serum may be increased by repeated inoculations of virus, and infection in monkeys can be prevented by injecting simultaneously the virus into the brain and the serum into the sub-arachnoid space. The serum treatment of this disease is, however, not developed to such a state that it can be regarded as of practical use.

Louping Ill—Trembling in Sheep.*

This disease is known only in Scotland and is essentially a disease of sheep. It is characterized by a variety of nervous phenomena, such as trembling, irritabilty, and convulsive movements, which are followed later by partial or complete paralysis. The chief lesions are found in the meningeal membranes. This disease is supposed to be transmitted by ticks, not the wingless fly which is generally called a "sheep tick" in the United States, but true ticks, belonging to the genus *Ixodes*. The specific microörganism has not been discovered.

Pellagra.†

Pellagra is a disease of man characterized by the annually recurring manifestation, each spring or autumn or both, of erythema on the backs of the hands and forearms and sometimes on the face and neck, feet and ankles, coupled with digestive disorder, and more or less well-marked mental disturbances. During the winter the signs of the disease usually disappear.

At present there are two main groups of theories concerning the causation of pellagra, each of which includes a multitude of hypotheses. According to one group of theories pellagra is a food poisoning due to eat-

* Prepared by M. Dorset.
† Prepared by W. J. MacNeal.

ing maize (Indian corn); according to the other, pellagra is a specific infectious disease not necessarily associated with the ingestion of corn. None of the theories concerning causation is supported by reliable positive evidence, but the evidence against the maize theory marshalled by Sambon* and others has weakened the almost general belief in that theory which had formerly obtained. A renewed interest in the investigation of pellagra has developed in Europe, and the recognition of the disease in the United States has stimulated investigation here also. It is not improbable that these investigations will add something to our knowledge of pellagra, and they may even bring to light some positive evidence in regard to its causation.

RABIES.†

Lyssa or Rabies, the madness of dogs, was recognized as a definite disease of animals and man by the peoples of ancient times. The disease is generally distributed throughout the civilized world except in those places where special measures to stamp it out have been enforced. It does not rise spontaneously but is an infectious disease transmitted from animal to animal. Rabies is primarily a disease of dogs, and the bite of a mad dog is the most frequent cause of the disease in other animals and in man. It is not uncommon in horses and cattle, and all mammals appear to be suspectible to it.

In animals inoculated by injection of the most virulent virus (fixed virus) directly into the brain, the symptoms of rabies appear in four to six days and death usually occurs on the seventh day. Accidental inoculation by the bite of a rabid animal (street virus) rarely causes the symptoms to appear before three weeks, and the onset may be delayed for six months or a year. Not all persons or animals bitten by rabid animals take the disease; probably not more than one in four or five. This variability depends upon several factors, the most important ones being the virulence and the amount of disease virus, and the part of the body into which it is introduced. Bites upon the face or hands, because of the rich *nerve supply* of these regions and the lack of protection by clothing, are likely to result in rabies sooner than bites elsewhere.

After the disease has developed, death is inevitable. In all animals the symptoms are those of a nervous disorder. At first there is excitation,

* Sambon, British Med. Jour., Nov. 11, 1905; Journal of Tropical Med. and Hyg., Sept. 15 Oct. 1, Oct. 15, and Nov. 1, 1910.

† Prepared by W. J. MacNeal.

and this is followed by paralysis and death, the relative length of the two stages varying in different animals. In the dog the disease runs its course in six to eight days. It begins with altered behavior of the animal, itching of the infecting scar, changed appetite, and slight fever. The dog swallows grass, stones, and pieces of wood. As the stage of excitement becomes more fully developed the animal may run away and may travel fifty miles or more, snapping and biting from time to time, as the fits seize him, everything in his path. Finally the excitement is succeeded by paralysis, beginning in the lower jaw which hangs down. Then the hind legs fail, and soon the dog, no longer able to drag himself along, lies completely paralyzed, greatly emaciated, and soon dies. In the rabbit the stage of excitement is hardly noticeable, but the animal passes quickly into the paralytic stage, dying in two or three days. This type of paralytic rabies sometimes occurs in dogs, but is is more commonly observed in herbivorous animals.

In man there is at first psychical change, irritation in the scar of the infecting wound and rise of temperature. The first diagnostic symptom is usually a sudden spasm of the pharynx upon an attempt to swallow water. This convulsive seizure is repeated upon every attempt to drink, and soon even the sight of water or the thought of it brings on the attack. The cramps extend to other muscles of the body, and the patient may die in a convulsive seizure, or may pass into the succeeding paralytic stage and die peacefully. The dread of water which is often so prominent a symptom in man has given the name of hydrophobia to the disease. Consciousness and general intelligence are not particularly affected. The duration of the disease is from three to six days.

Rabies can be transmitted with certainty by injecting a small amount of emulsified spinal cord of the rabid animal into the brain of a rabbit or guinea pig. Inoculation under the skin is not quite so certain, and inoculation into the blood stream, or by feeding, generally fails to transmit the disease. When first removed from a rabid dog, the virus (street virus) kills rabbits in from two to four weeks, but after repeated transfer from rabbit to rabbit in series, the period of incubation is shortened until death occurs quite regularly in six or seven days after inoculation. Beyond this there is no further increase in virulence for rabbits, and this six- or seven-day virus is called the "fixed virus."

The localization of the virus in the body of the rabid animal has been worked out by experimental inoculations. The central nervous system

is always virulent, as are also the salivary glands and the saliva. The peripheral nerves frequently contain the virus, less commonly other glands and secretions such as the tears, urine and milk. The virus has never been found in the liver or spleen, or in the blood. Under ordinary conditions, the chief source of danger is the saliva of the rabid animal, especially when this is introduced into a wound.

Rabies may be recognized in a dog in one of three ways: observation of the course of the disease; autopsy; inoculation of test-animals and observation of the course of the disease in them. If the suspected dog is chained or caged, the question of rabies may be settled in a few days, for, if mad, the raging stage will be succeeded by the characteristic paralysis and death. If the dog has already been killed, a careful autopsy may show the absence of normal food from the digestive tract and the presence there of abnormal ingested material, highly suggestive of rabies. Microscopic examination* of the central nervous system is, in the hands of an expert, a reliable method of diagnosis, which in this case depends upon the finding of the characteristic Negri bodies in the specimen. For confirmation of the diagnosis, a portion of the brain or spinal cord, removed without contamination, should be injected into the brain of test animals, and the effects observed. This last test carried out by experienced observers is justly regarded as the most trustworthy of all.

THE NEGRI BODIES.—The peculiar bodies found by Negri in the central nervous system of rabid animals seem to occur invariably and exclusively in this disease, and it is possible that they represent a stage in the life history of the infectious agent. These bodies are especially numerous in the Ammon's horn of the brain in cases of street rabies (Fig. 116). They appear as round or somewhat triangular structures, in part inside the nerve cells. Their size varies considerably, from 1μ to 27μ in diameter, the most of them being about 5μ. In the interior of the Negri body smaller spherical structures of variable size and number can be seen. Some careful students of rabies regard these bodies as protozoa and consider them to be the infectious agent. Proof of this belief is still lacking inasmuch as it has not yet been conclusively shown that the Negri bodies are actually living things.

A wound inflicted by a rabid animal should be thoroughly cauterized, under anæsthetic if desired, at the earliest possible moment, and this

*For methods of demonstrating the Negri bodies, see Park, Pathogenic Bacteria and Protozoa, Ed. 3, 1908, p. 608.

cauterization should not be omitted even if twenty-four hours have elapsed. Cauterization cannot be relied upon to prevent the development of rabies, but it does serve to prolong the incubation period. The Pasteur treatment should then be instituted as soon as possible, and it has proved to be practically an absolute preventive, provided the incubation period of the disease is sufficiently prolonged for the treatment to become effective, and this is usually the case. The treatment consists in the daily subcutaneous injections of altered fixed virus for a period of about three

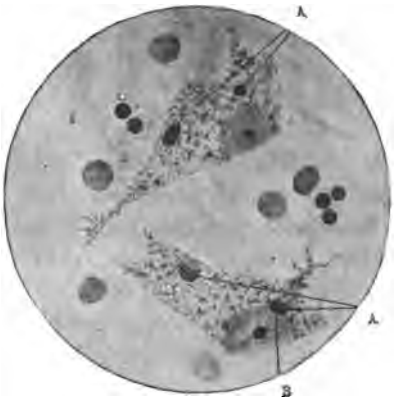


FIG. 116.—Two nerve cells of *hippocampus Major* (smear preparation) showing Negri bodies. *A*, Negri bodies; *B*, inner bodies within the Negri bodies. (*After Reichel, American Veterinary Review.*)

weeks, and is most effectively given at Pasteur Institutes devoted especially for this work. Valuable animals as well as man may be successfully treated in this way.

The general prevention of rabies depends almost solely upon the efficient control of all dogs in a community. General muzzling, strictly enforced, is a certain preventive of rabies, and in countries where this is done rabies is practically unknown.

SWAMP FEVER.*

This is a comparatively new disease of horses so far as definite information is concerned, but is in reality an old disease that has been described

* Prepared by M. H. Reynolds.

under a variety of names for many years. It is known by various names as malarial fever, horse typhoid, "plains" paralysis, and pernicious anæmia, and has been recognized in many portions of the Western United States and Canada.

This disease is usually of chronic type, but acute cases have been reported. There is usually a long illness extending from a month to a year or more, and marked by periods of fever and debility, alternating with periods of apparent recovery. The phase of apparent illness is characterized by mild fever, general weakness, and staggering gait, and the disease terminates fatally, as a rule. The peculiar features of the disease are the alternating periods of illness and recovery, unthriftiness in spite of unusually good appetite, pallor of mucous membranes, dropsical swellings of the belly and limbs.

It has been satisfactorily proved that swamp fever is caused by an invisible, living virus and that the individuals are so small that they are capable of passing readily through laboratory filters.

Under artificial inoculation with blood, the period of incubation varies from ten to forty days. The natural method of infection is unknown, but there are reasons for believing that infection does not easily occur by way of the digestive organs nor through the respiratory organs. The disease is apparently not communicated by simply stabling diseased animals with healthy animals.

Distribution in the body is very general, as shown by the wide distribution of characteristic lesions, and as shown by the fact that the blood is infectious.

The virus which causes swamp fever reduces greatly the number of red blood corpuscles and also produces local hæmorrhages which are most frequently small and sharply defined. The reduction of red blood cells produces marked pallor, and there gradually develops noticeable emaciation.

Post-mortem lesions in many cases are slight. The hæmorrhages involve subcutaneous and intermuscular tissues and are rather common on the lungs and heart. Any of the abdominal organs may show the characteristic hæmorrhages. The bone marrow has been reported in some cases as distinctly changed in color, the yellow marrow of long bones becoming dark red. In some cases the liver shows degeneration and necrosis or tissue death.

Typhus Fever.*

Typhus fever (ship fever, jail fever) has been known to exist for centuries but until very recently we have been without precise knowledge concerning its cause. Typhus is found in all parts of the world; it affects man only and is characterized by a high fever and an eruption on the skin. The course of the disease is limited and lasts for only about twelve days. In the years 1909 and 1910 Nicolle, working in Tunis, and Anderson and Goldberger, and Ricketts and Wilder working in Mexico, showed that typhus is communicated from man to man by means of the body louse (*Pediculus vestimenti*), and that the disease is not contagious in the ordinary sense of the word. Nicolle states that after biting a typhus fever patient the louse cannot convey the infection until the fourth day thereafter and that it loses this power after the seventh day. This indicates a similarity between the microörganisms causing yellow fever, malaria and typhus. The disease may be communicated to monkeys by subcutaneous inoculations of blood from a typhus fever patient. The virus may be transferred from one monkey to another indefinitely. In monkeys recovery from severe attack produces a firm immunity. No microörganism has been discovered which can be regarded as the cause of the disease. Attempts to pass the virus through filters have been unsuccessful with the possible exception of certain experiments by Nicolle. The virus is destroyed by heating from 50 to 55°.

Whooping Cough.†

Whooping cough accounted for the death of 4856 children in the United States in 1907. The causative agent, according to Bordet and Gengou, is an influenza-like bacillus.

It is a non-motile coccoid bacillus, stained faintly by aniline dyes and Gram-negative. It is distinguished from the influenza bacillus by agglutination and complement deviation tests and by the fact that it can be gradually adapted to ordinary media.

The production of *pertussis* in young animals has been claimed. The organism has an endotoxin which produces local necrosis after subcutaneous injection.

Immune sera developed against the bacillus in animals with agglutinins

* Prepared by M. Dorset.
† Prepaerd by Edward Fidlar.

and complement-binding bodies, but these have shown no practical value in treatment.

YELLOW FEVER.*

Yellow fever is an acute infectious, non-contagious disease of man which is seen in tropical and sub-tropical countries, particularly the West Indies, South America, and the west coast of Africa. The most notable symptoms of the disease are fever, jaundice, and hæmorrhages from the mucous membranes, this latter resulting in severe cases in what is known as "Black Vomit," which consists chiefly of extravasated blood which has been changed to a brown or black color by the action of the gastric juice.

Prior to the brilliant researches of Walter Reed and his associates on the United States Army Commission in the year 1900, it was generally believed that yellow fever was contagious, and that the disease was transmitted directly from infected to non-infected individuals, and furthermore that the clothing, bedding, and all materials which came in contact with the infected subject were capable of transmitting the disease. Reed and his associates, during the American occupation of Cuba, secured a number of volunteer subjects to serve the Commission in its studies. This Commission demonstrated positively that yellow fever could not be transmitted to man in any other way than by the bite of a particular mosquito, *Aëdes* (*Stegomyia*) *calopus* (Meigen). These mosquitoes were allowed to bite patients suffering from yellow fever at different stages of the disease. Subsequently these same mosquitoes were allowed to bite healthy men at different periods of time following their application to the infected individual. It was proved that the mosquito, in order to be capable of conveying the disease, must bite an infected individual during the first three days of the fever and at least twelve days must elapse thereafter before the mosquito is capable of transmitting the disease to a susceptible individual.

These observations indicate that the mosquito acts as an intermediate host and that the cause of yellow fever is probably some animal parasite which passes through definite cycles of development. It was shown by Reed and Carroll that the virus of yellow fever will pass through Berkefeld filters and that the disease may be produced by subcutaneous inoculation of healthy men with blood drawn from a patient during the first

* Prepared by M. Dorset.

three days of the attack. The Commission of the French Government studying yellow fever in Brazil showed that the virus passed through the Chamberland filter marked "F," but that it was restrained by the Chamberland "B" unless the serum was diluted, in which case the virus passed through the finer-pored Chamberland "B" filters. Heating for ten minutes at 55° appears to destroy the virulence of serum taken from infected individuals.

As yellow fever is transmitted solely by the mosquito, modern methods of combating the disease consist in the destruction of the mosquito and careful screening of all dwelling houses in infected centers. As a result of measures of this character, yellow fever has been eradicated from Havana where it had remained endemic for many years prior to the discoveries of Reed and his associates.

DISEASES CAUSED BY PROTOZOA.*

RHIZOPODA.

The amœbæ are the most important of the parasites belonging to the rhizopods. Some amœbæ are parasitic in the intestines of cattle, horses, mice, frogs, fish and men; most of them, like *Amœba coli* of man, are harmless. One species, *Amœba dysenteriæ* (not *Entamœba histolytica*), produces a very severe disease of man. *Amœba meleagridis* is the cause of a fatal disease of turkeys (p. 669). Another amœba is sometimes a harmful parasite of the human bladder. While still another, *Amœba buccalis*, is a harmless parasite which is frequently found about the teeth of persons who do not keep their mouths perfectly clean.

AMŒBIC DYSENTERY.

Amœba dysenteriæ.

Distribution.—Amœbic dysentery is most often a disease of tropical, or sub-tropical, countries; but cases of it occasionally occur in Great Britain and in Central Europe, and in the United States.

The Parasite: Amœba coli (Fig. 117) and *Amœba dysenteriæ* are both parasites in the human intestine. Both are amœboid organisms, measuring from 15μ to 30μ in diameter. Their cytoplasm contains a nucleus, vacuoles, and food particles. Both may multiply by budding and by simple division; sexual multiplication has not been observed in either. *Amœba coli* may also reproduce by forming eight spores. *Amœba coli* is distinguished from *Amœba dysenteriæ* by its spore formation and by its homogeneous cytoplasm; the outer layer of the cytoplasm of *Amœba dysenteriæ* is more distinct and forms a resistant ectoplasm. It is probably because of this ectoplasm that

* Diseases arranged generically.

* Prepared by J. L. Todd.

Amœba dysenteriæ is able to penetrate the mucosal layer of the intestine and to produce dysenteric ulcers, while *Amœba coli* is unable to do so. Both amœbæ may encyst. The cysts are excreted with the fæces; and it is through the ingestion of food or drink, contaminated by encysted amœbæ, that infection with amœbæ is acquired. If unencysted amœbæ are swallowed, they are digested by the acid juices of the stomach; encysted amœbæ pass through the stomach unaltered and become active in the alkaline contents of the intestine.

Amœba coli and *Amœba dysenteriæ* may be present in an intestine for months without harming it. Eventually, an *Amœba dysenteriæ* enters one of the glands of Lieberkühn and passes through it into the submucosal layer of the intestine. Bacteria accom-

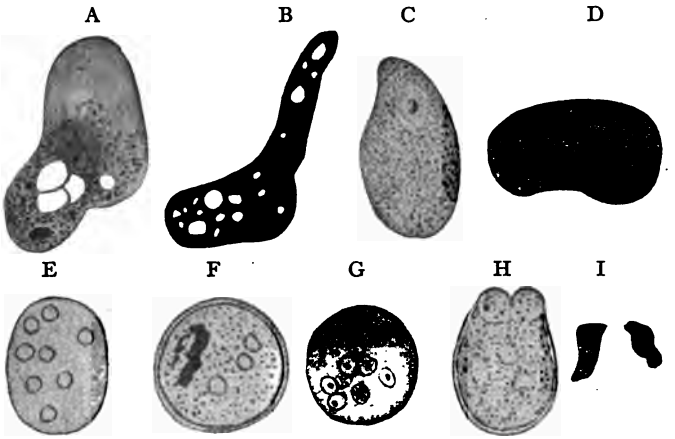


FIG. 117.—*Amœba coli*. *A-C*, various forms of free amœbæ; *D*, the 8-nuclear stage; *E-G*, cysts with nuclear fragments; *H*, bursting cyst; *I*, a young free amœba. (*After Casagrandi and Barbagallo, from Doflein.*)

pany it and they, with the amœbæ, cause an ulcer which spreads in the submucosa and undermines the mucosal layer of the intestine. In severe cases, when the ulcers have spread widely, large pieces of the mucosa may be sloughed off; they may be so large as to form complete casts of the intestine. The amœbæ lie at the edge of the ulcer and help to spread it by working their way into sound tissue; once an ulcer is started, *Amœba coli* as well as *Amœba dysenteriæ*, may be found in it. The amœbæ live upon the red cells or fragments of intestinal cells. In chronic cases, the wall of the intestine becomes greatly thickened.

Ulcers caused by amœbæ are almost always situated in the large intestine; consequently, the symptoms of amœbic dysentery are those of inflammation of that part of the body. There is always abdominal pain, accompanied by the passage of frequent, blood-stained, mucoid stools. There are also, usually, more general symptoms, such as fever

and loss of flesh. If amœbic dysentery causes death, it usually does so by perforating the bowel and producing a peritonitis, by opening a blood vessel in the intestine and causing a fatal hæmorrhage, or by producing an abscess of the liver. Liver abscesses are a not infrequent sequence of amœbic dysentery.

Amœbic dysentery is cured with difficulty; but, since the encysted amœbæ are killed by heat, it can be avoided easily by eating and drinking only foods and liquids that have been cooked.

Entero-hepatitis of Turkeys.

Amœba meleagridis.

Entero-hepatitis, or black-head, of turkeys is caused by *Amœba meleagridis*. The disease is wide-spread throughout North America. It is a very fatal affection and on many farms it makes the raising of turkeys absolutely impossible. The disease is characterized by thickening and ulceration of the cæca, and by necrosis and abscess of the liver. These lesions are caused by *Amœba meleagridis*, a small amœba measuring about 8μ to 10μ in diameter. Turkeys become infected with this parasite by swallowing its encysted forms; young turkeys may become infected from encysted amœbæ, which adhere to the shells from which they were hatched.

There is no treatment for the disease, but it can be avoided through keeping clean stock on land which has never been infected by droppings from infected turkeys, and by carefully wiping eggs intended for hatching with formalin.

Flagellata.

The spirochætes, a treponema, the herpetomonads and the trypanosomes are the most important of the parasitic flagellates.

Spirochæta.

Many spirochætes are, apparently, harmless parasites in shell fish, in the alimentary canals of some animals and in the blood of fish, birds, and many mammals; other spirochætes produce disease in men and poultry.

Several spirochætes are parasitic in man. *Spirochæta dentium* (Fig. 118) and *Spirochæta buccalis* are harmless organisms which are found in tartar, about the teeth.

Spirochæta vincenti sometimes causes a dangerous form of sore throat Other spirochætes have been found in foul ulcers, and others occasionally cause bronchitis and enteritis. All these are comparatively unimportant parasites: *Spirochæta duttoni*, *Spirochæta obermeieri* and *Spirochæta pallidula* are more important ones.

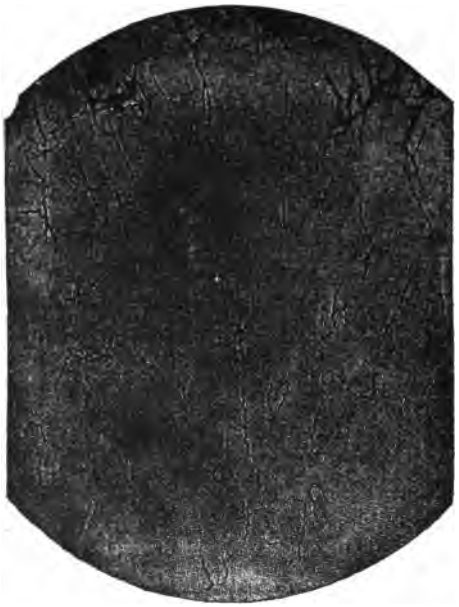


FIG. 118.—*Spirochæta dentium* in pure culture. (*After Mühlens from Doflein.*)

AFRICAN TICK FEVER.

Spirochæta duttoni.

African tick fever is a disease caused by *Spirochæta duttoni* and transmitted by the bites of a tick *Ornithodoros moubata* (Fig. 120).

This disease exists in Central and Eastern Africa, wherever *Ornithodoros moubata* (Fig. 119) occurs. A disease, which is probably caused by a spirochæte, is transmitted by another tick, *Argas persicus*, in Persia.

In Central America a spirochæte, which causes a disease almost identical with tick fever, is carried by *Ornithodoros chinche.*

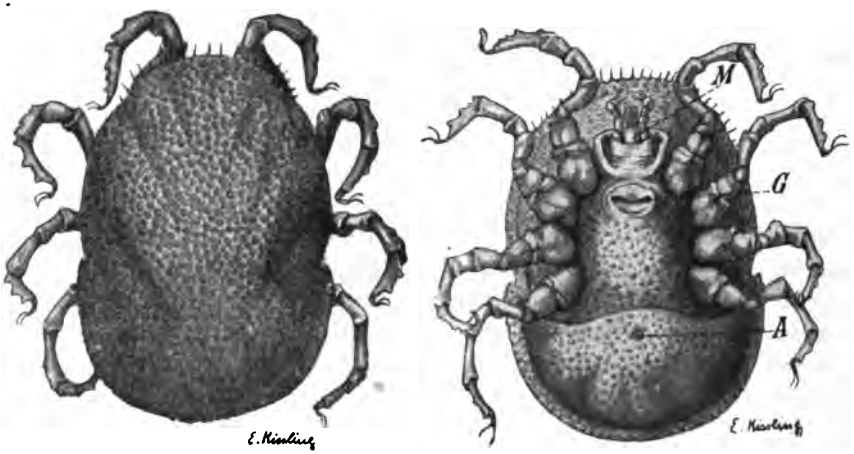


FIG. 119.—*Ornithodoros moubata.* (*Murray from Doflein.*)

Spirochæta duttoni is a slender organism measuring from 14μ to 16μ in length; its thread-like body lies in a number of waves, which vary greatly in number, according to the way in which the preparation is made; consequently, the number of waves is not a constant character which can be relied upon for the identification of this species of spirochæte. This spirochæte is composed of an outer ectoplasmic sheath, and of a core of chromatin; the sheath extends at either end into flagellum-like prolongations. It probably has an extremely small undulating membrane. Multiplication is accomplished by both transverse and longitudinal binary division. Sometimes, perhaps most often toward the end of an attack of fever, the spirochætes coil up tightly, within a cyst-like matrix. Such encysted forms may lie within red blood cells, liver cells, and spleen cells; they are seen most frequently in the liver and spleen, and they are always present in the alimentary canal of ticks which have ingested spirochæte-infected blood. The chromatin of both free and encysted spirochætes may be fragmented, more or less regularly. In the tick, cysts, containing a spirochæte with fragmented chromatin, burst and set free the granules of chromatin; it is probable that each granule develops into a spirochæte. It is not impossible that the same method of multiplication also occurs in man.

FIG. 120.—*Spirochæta duttoni.* (*After Doflein.*)

The form and the exact way in which the spirochæte is transmitted by the tick is not known. It is probable that a tick, once infected, never loses its power to transmit

the disease; the infection may be transmitted, from mother to daughter, through at least three generations of ticks.

The ticks hide during the day and feed at night. The wound produced by their bite is insignificant.

An incubation period of about five days intervenes between the tick bite and the appearance of symptoms. The fever is characteristic; it rises rapidly to, perhaps, 105° and it remains high for from three to five days. It then falls suddenly and there is no fever for from five days to two weeks. Then the temperature rises again. There may be from three to six such recurrences of fever before the illness ends. The definite periodicity of the relapses probably depends upon some more or less regular developmental change in the spirochætes; they are always most numerous in the blood during the height of the fever. The disease is not often fatal. There is no specific treatment for it. It can be prevented easily by avoiding tick bites.

Relapsing or Recurrent Fever.

Spirochæta obermeieri.

This is still a common disease in some parts of Europe. Its symptoms are almost identical with those of tick fever; and the spirochæte causing it, *Spirochæta obermeieri*, can only be distinguished from *Spirochæta duttoni* by the fact that an animal which has recovered from an infection by one of these parasites is immune to reinoculation with it, but is susceptible to an inoculation with the other spirochæte. The means by which relapsing fever is transmitted is not known; it is probably carried by the bites of lice, or of other vermin.

Yaws.

Spirochæta pallidula.

This is a disease of the tropics. It is characterized by the presence, on any part of the body, of more or less numerous, ulcerating sores. It is caused by a slender spirochæte, *Spirochæta pallidula.*

Other Spirochætal Diseases.

Ulcerating granuloma of the pudenda is a tropical disease which is also caused by a spirochæte.

Spirochætes cause diseases of geese in Southern Russia and of fowls

in Brazil and in other tropical countries. The spirochæte of fowls, *Spirochæta gallinarum*, is transmitted by a tick, *Argas miniatus;* the means by which the goose spirochæte, *Spirochæta anserina*, is carried is not known.

TREPONEMA.

This single species of this genus is a very important parasite.

SYPHILIS.

Treponema pallidum.

This disease, in all its diverse forms, is caused by *Treponema pallidum.* The treponema is an exceedingly slender, thread-like organism, with a waved body which measures from 6μ to 14μ in length (Fig. 121). It greatly resembles the spirochætes, but differs from them in being without an undulating membrane and in having each end

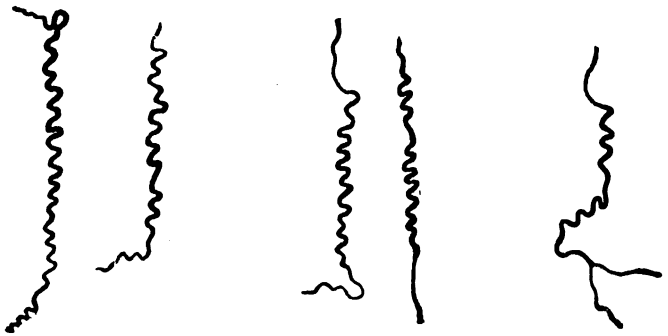


FIG. 121.—*Treponema pallidum.* (*After Schaudinn from Doflein.*)

drawn out to make a very slender flagellum. Very little is known of the life history of the treponema; it multiplies by longitudinal and by transverse division. It is transmitted by the contact of a lesion, containing the parasites, with the broken skin, or with a mucous membrane of an uninfected person. The symptoms of syphilis are the manifestations of irritation, and destruction of the tissues of the infected persons by the treponema and by the toxin which it produces.

Mercury and potassium iodide were formerly almost exclusively employed in treating syphilis. The search for an efficient drug for the treatment of trypanosomiasis has led to the discovery of other drugs which are of value in the treatment of syphilis, such as atoxyl (the sodium salt of para-amido-phenyl-arsenic acid) and its acetylated derivative, and of dichlorhydrate-diamido-arseno-benzol. The last named drug seems to

be an absolute cure for syphilis; it will also probably prove to be of distinct value in the treatment of diseases caused by spirochætes and by trypanosomes.

Herpetomonas.

The two parasites belonging to this genus which require mention were formerly known as *Leishmania*. The discovery of a herpetomonad stage in their development made it necessary to reclassify them. *Herpetomonas donovani* is the cause of kala azar, while *Herpetomonas furunculosa* produces Delhi Boil.

Kala Azar.

Herpetomonas donovani.

This disease occurs about the Mediterranean Sea and in many places in Asia.

It is caused by *Herpetomonas donovani* (Fig. 122). The parasite is rarely found in the blood; when it is seen there, it lies within a white cell; it almost never occurs

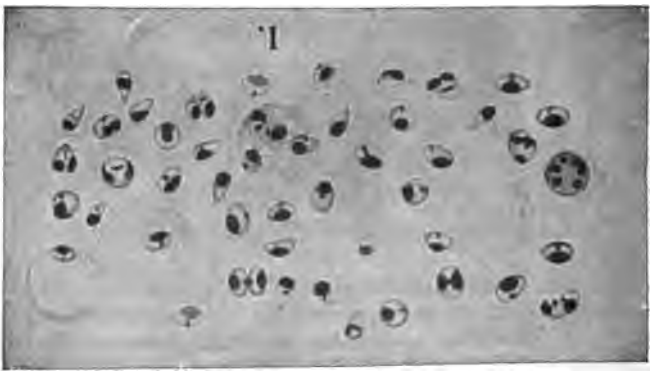


Fig. 122.—*Herpetomonas donovani.* Free organisms and a few within red blood cells. (*After Donovan, from Doflein.*)

free. It is, usually, easily found by an examination of the juice obtained from the spleen by puncturing that organ with the needle of a syringe. The liver is enlarged and it, also, contains parasites. As the organisms are seen in preparations of spleen juice, they are small ovals measuring about 2μ in length and 1.5μ in width. They consist of cytoplasm, in which lie two chromatic bodies, one of them large and rounded, the other small and rod-like. This form of the parasite may multiply in

the body of the host, by binary division. If spleen pulp, or blood, containing such organisms be placed on a suitable culture medium, they will develop, in three or four days, into herpetomonad forms. The large nucleus becomes the nucleus of the flagellate form, while the smaller, rod-like, mass becomes the kinetonucleus, from which arises the flagellum. The method by which the infection is acquired is unknown; it is probably by the bite of an insect, perhaps a bed bug.

Kala azar is a chronic disease characterized by emaciation, by an irregular fever and by considerable enlargement of the spleen. There is great loss in strength and energy.

Although there may be periods of apparent amelioration, the disease usually progresses steadily, in spite of treatment, to a fatal termination.

Delhi Boil.

Herpetomonas furunculosa.

This disease occurs in much the same places as does kala azar; it has, however, been seen in Brazil, where kala azar is unknown.

Delhi boil is caused by *Herpetomonas furunculosa.* The parasites are found at the spreading edge of the ulcer. As they occur in the ulcer they are oval parasites, almost identical with those which are found in the spleen of persons suffering from kala azar. If infected material be placed on a culture medium, flagellated forms will be developed.

Delhi boil is a painless ulcer, covered by a dry scab, which usually occurs about the face, or other uncovered portions of the body. If the sore be left untreated, it cures itself after some months. In countries where it occurs, Delhi boil is particularly liable to from at the site of a cut or abrasion. It is possible that, in some cases, the infection may be carried to a wound by house flies.

The condition is best treated by free excision. In places where it is endemic, care should be taken to avoid the possibility of infection by carefully protecting all wounds, no matter how small.

Trypanosoma

Trypanosomes are parasitic in insects, fish, reptiles, birds, and mammals in all parts of the world. Many of them seem to be harmless parasites; others cause very serious diseases.

Sleeping sickness is the most important of the diseases due to trypanosomes. It is caused by *Trypanosoma gambiense.*

Sleeping Sickness.

Trypanosoma gambiense.

Sleeping sickness is a disease of man caused by *Trypanosoma gambiense;* it is usually transmitted by the bites of *Glossina palpalis,* a tsetse fly.

Sleeping sickness only occurs in those parts of Africa where the fly which transmits it exists.

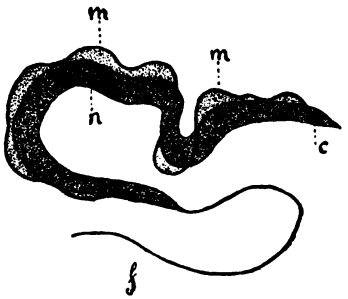


Fig. 123.—*Trypanosoma granulosum.* *n*, nucleus; *m*, undulating membrane; *c*, kinetonucleus; *f*, flagellum. ×2000 diam. (*After Laveran and Mesnil from Doflein.*)

Trypanosoma gambiense (Fig. 124) is cigar-shaped; it measures about 17μ to 25μ from the posterior extremity to the tip of its flagellum. A large main nucleus is placed near the center of the trypanosome; a smaller, kinetonucleus lies near its posterior end. From this smaller nucleus a filament arises, which runs the whole length of the parasite and extends from its anterior end as a free flagellum. Where the filament

Fig. 124.—*Trypanosoma gambiense.* (*After Minchin, from Doflein.*)

runs along the body, the ectoplasm is folded over it to form the undulating membrane. The trypanosome moves by means of the undulating membrane and flagellum and also through the contraction of myoneme fibers which lie in the ectoplasm. In the blood, *Trypanosoma gambiense* multiplies by binary division. It is not impossible that it may

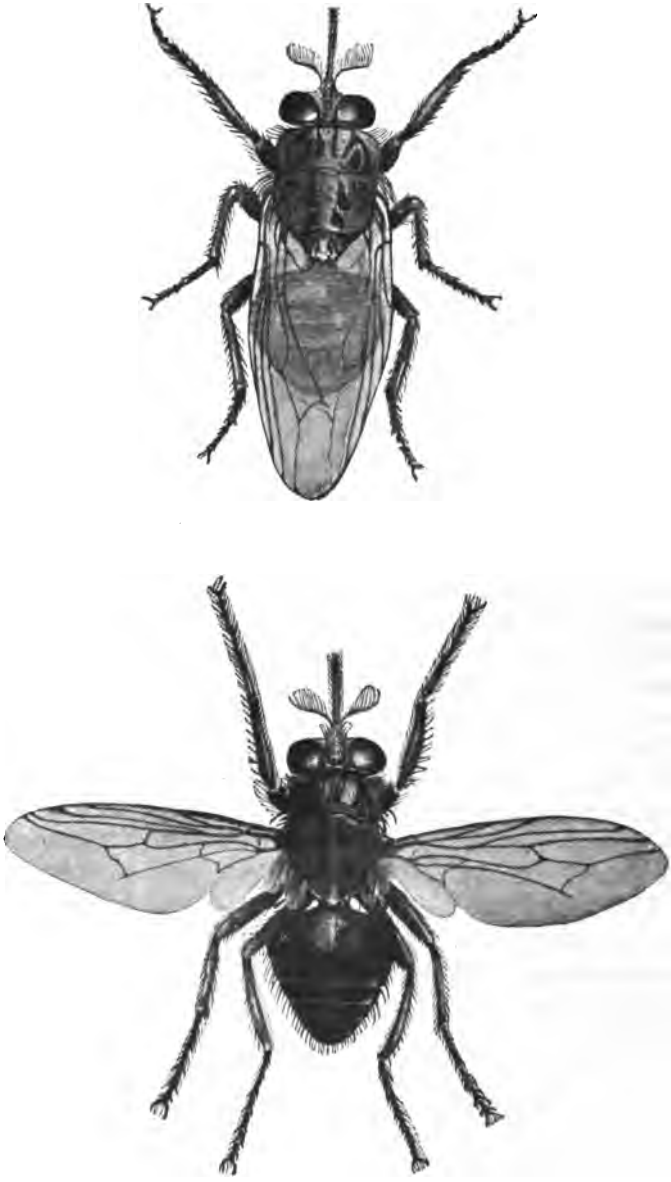


FIG. 125.—*Glossina palpalis.* (*After Doflein.*)

multiply in other ways, as do other trypanosomes; for example, a trypanosome of frogs loses its locomotory apparatus and forms a sphere, then the sphere divides into many small spheres, each of which becomes a trypanosome. Sometimes *Trypanosoma gambiense* loses its locomotory apparatus and forms a sphere; these forms are found in the organs of infected animals. They are probably more resistant, resting forms and a single trypanosome may be formed from some of them.

Tryanosomiasis is easily transmitted to susceptible animals by inoculation. It is possible that the disease may be transmitted occasionally, in this way, by the mere mechanical exchange of infected material, through an insect's bite, from an infected to a healthy individual. But, as a rule, the disease can only be transmitted by the bites of *Glossina palpalis* (Fig 125); this fly is not infective until three weeks after it has fed on an infected person, and it retains its infecting power for some months.

An incubation period of at least ten days intervenes between the bite and the appearance of symptoms; the incubation period may be much longer, for trypanosomiasis may manifest itself in apparently healthy negroes several years after they have left any locality in which the disease could have been acquired. The disease sometimes causes death within three or four months; but it may last for one or more years. It is a chronic, wasting affection, characterized by loss of strength and energy, and by an irregular fever. A change in the character, red blotches on the skin, and enlargement of the lymphatic glands are all early signs of the disease. In the later stages, headache, mania, uncontrollable sleep, and other nervous symptoms may be present. Death rarely results from trypanosomiasis alone; the patients usually succumb to one of the secondary infections, to which the reduced condition of cases of sleeping sickness makes them especially liable. Although no toxin has been isolated, most of the symptoms are probably due to one, produced by the trypanosomes.

The recognition of trypanosomiasis depends upon the demonstration of the parasites. They may be found in fresh or stained preparations of the blood, in the juice obtained by aspirating an enlarged lymphatic gland, or in the cerebrospinal fluid. The examination of the blood is the simplest method of searching for trypanosomes; the examination of gland juice is the most efficient one.

The improvement in the methods of treating trypanosomiasis during the past ten years (1910-1911) affords an excellent example of the value of laboratory work. Before 1901 arsenic, given in some inorganic form, was the only drug known to have any effect on trypanosomiasis. Inorganic arsenic drives the parasites from the blood and improves the patient's condition. Unfortunately, the trypanosomes usually reappear

and, then, they have become resistant to arsenic so that the patient succumbs in spite of repeated doses of the drug. Many organic compounds of arsenic were experimented with in the hope of finding an efficient trypanocide and several valuable drugs have been found: "Atoxyl" which is the sodium salt of para-amido-phenyl-arsenic acid, acetylated atoxyl, and arsenophenylglycin, are all organic compounds of arsenic; they are much more effective than is arsenic itself. Similar organic compounds of antimony and tartar emetic are almost as effective, while certain aniline dyes have a distinct trypanocidal value. It has been found that trypanosomes may become resistant to any one of these drugs, and that drugs may destroy some stages of the trypanosome while they are unable to destroy others. In order to give the parasites no opportunity of acquiring resistance to any drug, and in order to destroy them at all stages of their development, the following general rules are now observed in the treatment of trypanosomiasis. The drugs employed should be alternated, and they should be given as early in the disease as possible, and in as large doses as possible. It is possible that these principles will be found to be of value in the treatment of other diseases caused by protozoa.

The prevention of the disease depends upon the avoidance of the water's edge, where *Glossina palpalis* exists, and of the proximity of persons infected by trypanosomiasis; the most usually successful way of recognizing infected persons is by the discovery of trypanosomes in the fluid aspirated from their enlarged lymphatic glands.

Human Trypanosomiasis of South America.

Trypanosoma cruzi.

This disease is caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi* (*Endotrypanum cruzi*); it is transmitted by the bites of a reduviid, *Conorrhinus megistus*. It has only been found in Brazil.

The *Trypanosoma cruzi* may be either free in the blood plasma or lie within a red cell. It multiplies, in the organs, by losing its locomotary apparatus and forming a sphere which divides into eight portions: a new trypanosome develops from each portion.

The disease is a chronic one, characterized by irregular temperature, by wasting, œdema, and enlargement of the spleen and lymphatic glands. It is often fatal. It may be prevented by avoiding the insect which transmits it; the habits of the *Conorrhinus* resemble those of a bed bug.

Trypanosomiases of Animals.

Several diseases, of great economic importance, which affect domestic animals, are caused by trypanosomes; the most important of them are mentioned. Tsetse-fly disease, or nagana, of Southern Africa, is caused by *Trypanosoma brucei* and it is transmitted by *Glossina morsitans;* it affects all domestic animals.

In South America, mal de caderas, a disease of horses, is caused by *Trypanosoma equinum;* it is probably transmitted by the bites of a biting fly, *Stomoxys*.

All through Asia; surra, caused by *Trypanosoma evansi*, is a severe disease of cattle and equines; it is probably transmitted by the bites of horse flies, *Tabanidæ*.

Trypanosoma dimorphon and many other trypanosomes, more or less closely allied to it, cause diseases of horses, cattle, and other domestic animals in many parts of Africa; they are probably all transmitted by the bites of flies.

One of the commonest trypanosomes is *Trypanosoma lewisi.* It is usually a harmless parasite and it is found in rats in all parts of the world. It is transmitted by the bites of the rats' fleas and lice.

Dourine, or *maladie de coit*, is a serious disease of equines; it is caused by *Trypanosoma equiperdum.* This disease was brought to North America by an imported Percheron stallion. It is now endemic in some of the western states and in part of southern Alberta, in Canada. It is transmitted by coitus and, perhaps, rarely by the bites of fleas.

A very large trypanosome, *Trypanosoma theileri*, occurs in cattle in southern Europe and in Africa; a large trypanosome, *Trypanosoma americanum*, resembling this one, has been found in cattle in the United States; these trypanosomes seem to do no harm to their hosts.

Although there are slight differences, the symptoms are much the same in all the trypanosomiases of animals, and they much resemble those which occur in the diseases produced in men by trypanosomes. Occasionally, as in nagana, an animal trypanosomiasis may run an acute course, and kill the host in two or three weeks; usually, they are diseases of long duration, characterized by irregular fever, œdemas and progressive loss of strength, weight, and energy. Localized areas of œdema beneath the skin and about the genitals are especially seen in dourine;

Trypanosoma equiperdum is most easily found by examining serum obtained by puncturing these œdemas.

Sporozoa.

This class contains many very important pathogenic parasites.

Coccidium.

Coccidia of various species are parasitic in the epithelial cells lining the intestines of mice, horses, cattle, pigs, goats, and other animals. In Europe, *Coccidium cuniculi* sometimes causes an enteritis of cattle; in East Africa, a coccidium causes a serious disease of cattle. Other coccidia kill many young pigeons, grouse, and chickens. Coccidia have been found in the intestines and in the pleural cavities of man.

Coccidiosis of Rabbits.

The coccidium causing this disease is the best known of the coccidia affecting mammals; it is called *Coccidium cuniculi.*

This coccidium is parasitic within the epithelial cells of the intestine and within liver cells. Adult, asexual forms measure from 20μ to 50μ in diameter and they produce from 30 to 200 merozoites. The merozoites infect other epithelial cells or find their way, by the bile passages, to the liver cells; they may again multiply asexually or they may develop into male and female forms destined to multiply sexually. One of the microgametes, produced by a microgametocyte, fertilizes a macrogamete and an oocyst is developed. Within the oocyst a number of sporoblasts form, which contain two spores each. The oocysts are excreted with the fæces; if they are ingested by a suitable host the spores are set free, when the cyst reaches the intestine, and a new infection is commenced.

Since the cells parasitized by the coccidia are destroyed, it is evident that a severe infection may do a great deal of harm and interfere with the functions of both intestine and liver. The disease may be limited by making it impossible for uninfected animals to come in contact with the droppings of infected stock.

White Diarrhœa of Chicks.

The name is applied to a condition in young chicks, which is characterized by the passage of gummy, white fæces. It is not improbable that this symptom may be produced by other causes; but one form of white

diarrhœa in chicks is due to an infection by a coccidium (*Coccidium avium*). (Bacillary White Diarrhœa of Chicks, p. 604).

Hæmosporidia.

The most important parasites of this order are those, belonging to the Genus *Plasmodium*, which cause malaria in man. Organisms similar to these are parasitic in the red blood cells of monkeys and bats. In birds, *Proteosoma* and *Hæmoproteus* are two genera of parasites of the red blood cells; it was the study of these avian parasites which led to the discovery of the way in which malaria is transmitted by the bites of a mosquito.

Plasmodium.

Three species of this genus are parasitic in man: *Plasmodium vivax*, the cause of tertian malaria, *Plasmodium malariæ* causing quartan malaria, and *Plasmodium falciparum*, which causes quotidian malarial fever.

Malaria.

Plasmodium.

Malaria is a disease caused by a *Plasmodium* and transmitted by the bite of an anopheline mosquito.

Malaria exists in all parts of the tropical and subtropical world (Fig. 126).

A young malarial parasite enters a red cell and supports itself by feeding upon the cell's substance. The parasite grows, and if it is to multiply asexually, divides into a number of merozoites which it frees by bursting. Those of the merozoites which escape ingestion by the white cells of the blood enter red cells where they may again multiply asexually, or they may develop into sexual forms. When blood, containing malarial parasites, is ingested by a suitable mosquito, all the parasites, except the adult sexual ones, are digested and die. Soon after they are ingested, both microgametocyte and macrogametocyte extrude polar bodies and the microgametocyte produces several microgametes, one of which enters and fertilizes the macrogamete. The macrogamete then becomes a motile ookinet, which makes its way until it comes to lie just beneath the outer surface of the mosquito's stomach. There it develops, as an oocyst, until it reaches several times its original size. Its ectoplasm divides into a number of areas, or sporoblasts, each of which subdivides to form many very small, hair-like sporozoites. When the oocyst bursts, some of the sporozoites find their way into the salivary glands of the mosquito, and, when it bites, they are extruded, with the saliva, into the body of the person from whom

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE I.

(Reproduced from Greene's Medical Diagnosis.)

Plasmodia of three varieties. Stained by Wright's stain.

In this plate the chromatin of the parasites is shown in red while the pigment granules appear as black dots.

THE QUARTAN PARASITE (*P. malariæ*).

1–9. Asexual multiplication. 10. Adult gametocyte. 11. Normal red cell. 12. Flagellating microgametocyte.

THE TERTIAN PARASITE (*P. vivax*).

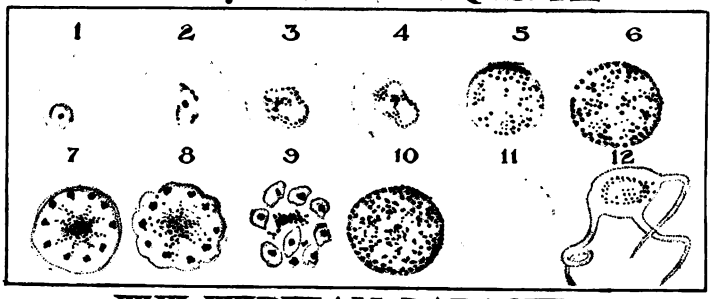
13–21. Asexual multiplication. 22. Flagellating microgametocyte.

THE ÆSTIVO-AUTUMNAL PARASITE (*P. falciparum*).

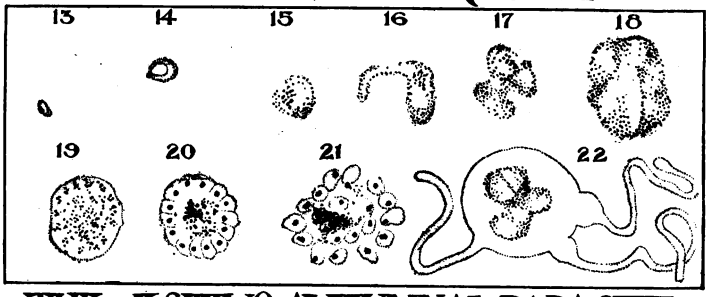
23–31. Asexual multiplication; 25 and 26 are doubly infected cells.
32–35. Gametocytes. 36, 37. Flagellating microgametocyte.

PLATE I

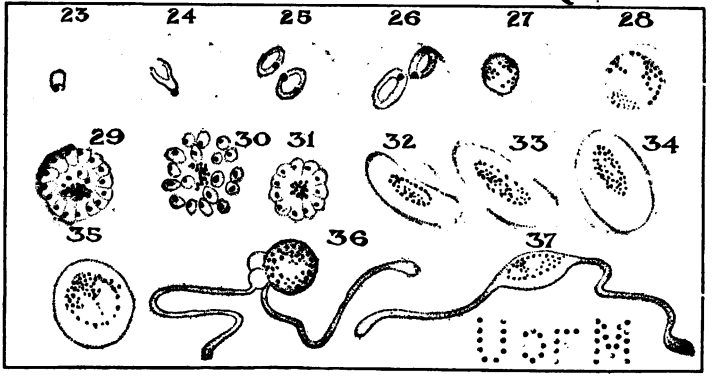
THE QUARTAN PARASITE



THE TERTIAN PARASITE



THE ÆSTIVO-AUTUMNAL PARASITE



blood is being sucked. The entry of a sporozoite within a red cell recommences the cycle of development which has just been described. If the adult sexual parasites are not taken up by a mosquito they die, but some of the female forms may live for years and then divide, without a precedent fertilization, to produce several young parasites. It is possible for sporozoites to enter eggs lying in the ovaries of infected mosquitoes; it is probable that mosquitoes, hatched from such eggs, inherit the infection from their parent and that they, also, are able to transmit malaria.

In fresh preparations of blood, a malarial parasite is seen as a body of varying size, which is more refractile and of a lighter color, than the red cell which contains it. It

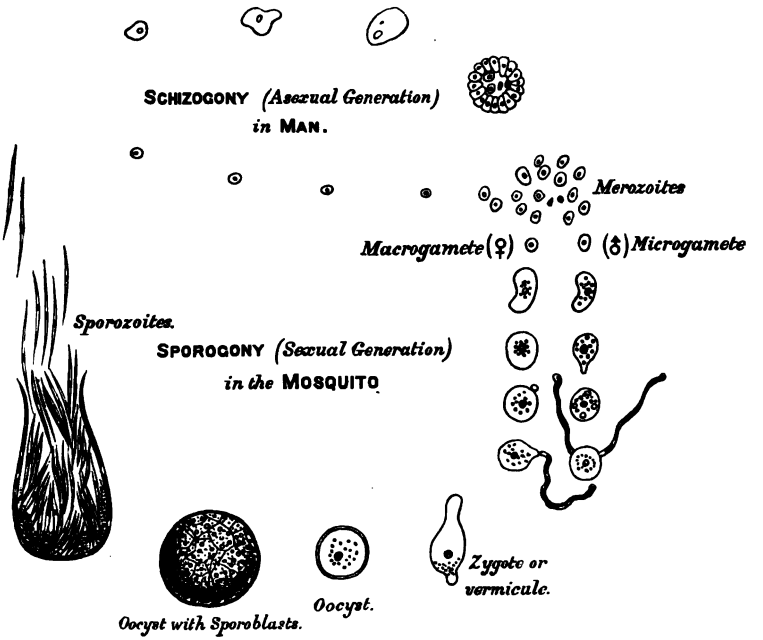


FIG. 126.—Diagram illustrating the human and mosquito cycles of existence of the malaria parasite. (*After Martin's General Pathology from Jackson.*)

has distinct amœboid movement and the pigment granules lying in it are in active motion. In preparations, stained by a modification of Romanowsky's method every malarial parasite is seen to possess a definite purple nucleus surrounded by blue-staining cytoplasm. Young parasites measure less than a fifth of the diameter of a red cell in width; adult parasites may completely fill the cell which contains them. Malarial pigment is the waste product which results from the digestion of the hæmoglobin of the red cells by a malarial parasite; consequently, since they have digested more hæmoglobin, the older parasites contain more pigment than do the younger ones. A mature asexual parasite is segmented into a number of divisions, each of which becomes a

merozoite when the parasite divides; *Plasmodium vivax* forms about eighteen divisions, *Plasmodium malariæ* forms about eight. The adult sexual forms of *Plasmodium falciparum* are shaped like a crescent. The three malarial parasites of man may be distinguished from one another by these peculiarities as well as by other, lesser differences in themselves and in the red cells they parasitize.

When a mature, asexual, malarial parasite bursts, it sets free young parasites and a toxin. Practically all of the parasites, present in a person suffering from acute malaria, mature and burst at the same time; the considerable amount of toxin, set free in this way, produces the ague fit. The young parasites of *Plasmodium vivax* mature in forty-eight hours;

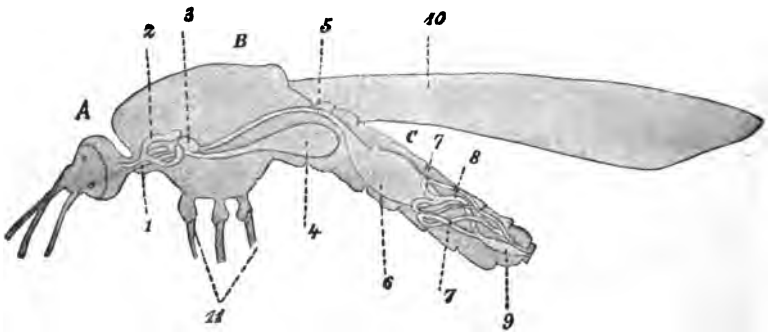


FIG. 127.—Longitudinal section of *Anopheles*. *A*, head; *B*, thorax; *C*, abdomen; 1, œsophagus; 2, salivary glands; 3, dorsal reservoir; 4, ventral reservoir; 5, canal entering stomach; 6, stomach; 7, malpighian tubes; 8, hind-gut; 9, rectum; 10, wings; 11, legs. (*After Grassi from Lang and Doflein.*)

consequently, a person infected by it has an ague fit when schizogony occurs, on every third day, and the disease caused by it is called a *tertian fever*. *Plasmodium malariæ* matures in seventy-two hours; consequently, it causes an attack of ague on every fourth day and the fever caused by it is called *quartan fever*. Patients infected by *Plasmodium falciparum* have a *quotidian fever* or æstivo-autumnal fever with a daily rise in the temperature. There are three stages in an ague fit: during the cold stage, the patient feels cold; in the hot stage he feels warm—his temperature is above normal during both stages; in the sweating stage the temperature falls to normal and the patient's discomfort becomes much less.

The regularly recurring ague fit is the only symptom characteristic of malaria and a regular rise in temperature on the third or fourth days of an illness is practically diagnostic of a malarial infection. The type of dis-

ease, and the symptoms, produced by a malarial infection, may vary almost indefinitely according to the precise way in which the host is harmed by the infection. Consequently, an enumeration of the clinical manifestations of malaria is of less importance to a student than is an understanding of the way in which the malarial parasites harm their host. The malarial parasites destroy the red cells; consequently, they may cause an anæmia with the symptoms which depend upon it. Secondly, they produce toxins which may cause both acute and chronic intoxications; the acute intoxications are seen in the ague fit and in some pernicious forms of malaria, the malarial neurites are examples of chronic intoxication. Lastly, malarial parasites may do harm by blocking the capillaries and causing the death of the cells which are cut off from the circulation; the symptoms which result depend upon the functions of the cells which are destroyed. If the disease be long continued, with a high temperature, the degenerative changes which usually result from chronic disease and constant fever are produced in the patient.

The definite diagnosis of malarial fever depends upon the demonstration, in a patient, of the malarial parasite, or of the pigment produced by it.

Quinine is the only drug which has a specific action on the malarial parasite. It must be given thoroughly and in full doses.

Malaria is the type of those diseases which are produced by a parasite and transmitted by an insect. Such diseases may be prevented by measures directed, either against the parasite or against the transmitting agent. Malaria is caused by a *Plasmodium* and transmitted by the bites of mosquitoes belonging to the *Anophelinæ*. The disease may be combated by destroying the parasite, in infected persons with quinine, and by isolating such persons behind mosquito curtains so that mosquitoes may never have an opportunity of ingesting the parasites they contain. Malaria may also be prevented by destroying the mosquitoes which transmit it. The most efficient way of getting rid of mosquitoes is to make it impossible for them to breed. The eggs of a mosquito are laid in water, and water is absolutely necessary for the larval and pupal stages, which must be passed through before the adult mosquito is produced. Fish destroy developing mosquitoes and large sheets of water are too rough for them; so mosquitoes must have, for breeding, rather small collections of fresh water free from fish. Mosquitoes will soon disappear from a locality if all such collections of water, within a quarter of a mile of it, are filled up,

drained, or covered with a film of coal oil so as to make it impossible for the mosquitoes to breed in them. Those who live in a malarious district should protect themselves from mosquito bites by the careful use of mosquito-netting. By the simple observance of these evident indications, malaria has already been banished from several localities in which it was formerly endemic.

BABESIA.

This order is often called PIROPLASMA. It includes several parasites, which cause diseases of considerable economic importance in horses, cattle, sheep, and dogs; none of them infect man. One of the best known species is *Babesia bigemina*, which causes Red-water of cattle. The parasites which are associated with the numerous babesioses are distinguished from one another by the host in which they are found, by slight differences in their morphology and by their inoculability into various animals.

RED WATER.

Babesia bigemina.

Red water is one of the names given to a disease of cattle which is characterized by hæmoglobinuria; in the United States it is often called Texas cattle fever. It is caused by *Babesia bigemina* (Fig. 128). The parasite is transmitted by the bites of a tick, in North America, by *Rhipicephalus annulatus*.

Red water occurs almost everywhere in the tropics and in many of the warmer parts of the temperate zones; it is frequently seen in the southern portion of the United States.

The parasite is a pear-shaped organism which usually lies within a red cell. It measures from 2μ to 4μ in length and about 1μ in breadth. In fresh preparations they appear as refractile bodies possessed of slight amœboid movement; in stained preparations they are seen to consist of a blue-staining cytoplasm which contains a mass of chromatin at its broader end. Multiplication is accomplished by simple division into two or more parts; it is possible that schizogony and sporogony may also occur. The parasites are often very scarce in the peripheral circulation; they are much more numerous in the organs and particularly in the spleen. The disease can be transmitted, experimentally, from bovine to bovine by the inoculation of blood which contains parasites; normally, it is transferred from animal to animal by the bites of a tick. The species of tick which carries red water is not the same in all parts of the world.

Ten days intervene between the bite of the infecting tick and the first sign of the infection. The temperature rises, it may be, to 106°, or more, and it remains high for a week. The animal is evidently very ill, it has no appetite, and it rapidly loses strength and weight. Many red cells are destroyed and anæmia may be marked. The urine is albuminous and it is red because of the hæmoglobin which it contains. Death may occur in very acute cases as early as the second day. Animals which recover from a severe attack are usually immune to the disease. The

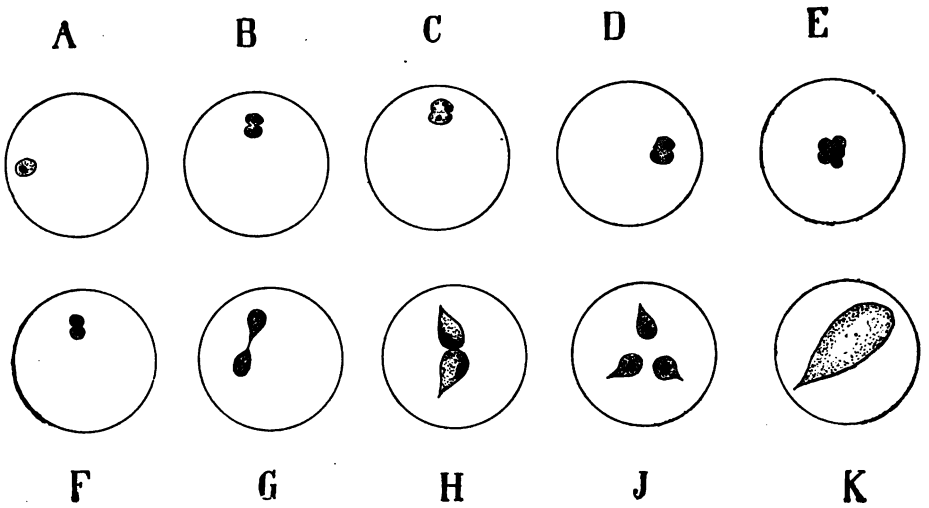


FIG. 128.—*Babesia bigemina*. Various stages of development in red blood cells. *A*, young parasite; *B*, a twin-form; *C-E*, a multiple division; *F-K*, large pear-shaped forms. (*After Doflein.*)

immunity is not an absolute one, however, for blood taken from such recovered animals is often infective; the parasite probably exists in them in a latent form.

There is no specific treatment for babesiosis. Some of the aniline drugs, used in the treatment of trypanosomiasis, such as trypan-blue, are of some value.

Many districts are kept free from red water by not allowing cattle coming from infected districts to enter them. Where it exists, the disease is controlled by destroying the ticks on cattle with poisonous washes and by occasionally plowing, or burning over, the pastures in order to destroy

ticks which have dropped to the ground. In the United States, cattle on some farms are kept free from ticks, and consequently from red water, by a manœuvre which takes advantage of the way in which the tick transmits the disease. The adult tick remains upon her host until she is ready to deposit her eggs; she then drops off, lays her eggs and dies. The young ticks, hatched from these eggs, attach themselves to new hosts; and it is through their bites that the disease is transmitted. Therefore, since the disease is transmitted by the progeny of ticks which have fed upon infected mammals, susceptible cattle may be protected from the disease by preventing young ticks from reaching them. This may be done by not allowing them to feed over fields where ticks may have been dropped until sufficient time, about ten months, has elapsed for all the ticks and their progeny to have died of starvation.

SARCOSPORIDIA.

Different species of this order are frequent parasites of all the domestic animals, of mice and, occasionally, of man. Mice are killed by them and it is possible that they may produce ill effects in men and domestic animals; but no definite illness is associated with their presence. Though they may occur in any part of the body, they are most numerous in muscles, such as those of the larynx and œsophagus, which are near the alimentary canal. For this reason it seems possible that they may enter the bodies of their hosts with food; but nothing is known with certainty of their life history.

MYXOSPORIDIA.

One member of this order, *Myxobolus pfeifferi*, is mentioned as a type of the parasites which are parasitic beneath the skin of fishes and produce diseases characterized by the presence of boil-like lesions.

MICROSPORIDIA.

Protozoa belonging to this order do not produce disease in man. They are the cause of a disease of bees, and they are of particular interest because one of them, *Nosema bombycis*, causes Pébrine.

PEBRINE.

Nosema bombycis.

This is a disease of the silk worm; it was the first disease proved to be due to an infection by a microscopical parasite. At the middle of the

nineteenth century, it appeared in the south of France. Pasteur studied the disease and discovered its cause. He perceived that pébrine might be prevented by destroying infected eggs and by rearing silk worms from only those eggs which could be seen, with a microscope, to be free from *Microsporidia*. His advice was followed and the French silk industry was freed from a plague which had almost destroyed it.

Infusoria.

Most of the parasitic infusoria occur in the alimentary tracts of their hosts Harmless infusoria are found in the stomachs of all herbivorous animals; they are also found in frogs' intestines. *Balantidium coli* is often a harmless parasite, but it may cause a severe inflammation of the intestine in men and in swine; one or two other infusoria occasionally produce similar symptoms in man. Other species of infusoria are parasitic on fish; some of these are harmless; others, by finding their way into the gills or beneath the scales, cause serious diseases.

Balantidium Enteritis.

Balantidium coli.

Balantidium coli is the most important of the infusoria parasitic to man; it may be a cause of dysentery.

This organism measures about 150μ in length and 50μ in breadth. It is covered with cilia; its cytoplasm is differentiated to form oral and anal areas and it contains digestive and contractile vacuoles. It multiplies by simple division, either with or without a precedent conjugation. It may encyst, and it is with this form of the parasite that infection by it is contracted.

High enemata of mild antiseptics will cure infections by this parasite.

Parasites of Uncertain Position.

In Panama, there is a disease of man, somewhat resembling one form of tuberculosis, which is caused by a protozoon called *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The only known stage of this parasite greatly resembles the non-motile form of *Herpetomonas donovani;* but it contains only one, not two masses of chromatin. This organism is certainly a protozoon; although the genus to which it belongs cannot be determined.

Chlamydozoa.

This name is given to certain bodies because their presence excites the cell containing them to produce a substance which surrounds them like a cloak. The exact nature of these bodies is disputed; it is even doubtful whether they are parasites,

or whether they are merely the expression of some morbid change, produced in the cells, by an unseen virus which causes the disease. They have been found in trachoma, a disease of the eyelids of man, in hydrophobia (p. 662), in *Molluscum contagiosum*, a skin disease, in smallpox, in vaccinia, and in scarlet fever. They are mentioned with the protozoa because, if they are parasites, they are probably more nearly allied to the protozoa than to the bacteria. They are extremely small bodies, measuring about 0.25μ in diameter. They are spherical and occur within the cells. In preparations stained by Romanowsky's method they are colored like chromatin.

ULTRAMICROSCOPIC VIRUSES (p. 64).

CHAPTER IV.*

CONTROL OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

Principles.

That the infectious diseases can be controlled depends upon the fact that they arise only in the presence of a specific living infective agent; that they pass from patient to prospective patient only because the infective agent passes from patient to prospective patient; and therefore that the prevention of effective passage will prevent the spread of the disease; these preventive measures with their natural incidental developments constitute the practice of present public health.

In general the infective agent leaves the body of the patient by the mucus-lined orifices of the body, the nose and the mouth, the anus, the urethra, the mammæ, and the genital organs. In general it must, if it is to infect successfully another person, reach one or more of the same mucus-lined orifices of that other person. Excluding the venereal diseases the ordinary infectious diseases (tuberculosis, typhoid fever, diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, whooping cough, smallpox, typhus fever, plague, leprosy) are almost exclusively received into the body through the mouth (or nose). While the passage is usually from mucous membrane to mucous membrane as above outlined, the infective agent may pass effectively from mucous membrane to cut or abrased skin (the uninjured skin is probably almost always resistant to these infections). Again, in those diseases where skin lesions are a prominent feature (smallpox, plague, leprosy) the infective agent may pass from the skin lesions to a mucous membrane, or to a cut or abrasion. But these are rare methods of transmission as compared with the mucous to mucous form, except in syphilis and chancroid where they frequently occur.

The routes of travel between the patient and the prospective patient are many. At times, mucous membrane may be applied to mucous membrane as when a well person kisses a diphtheritic child; conveyance of particles through the air, sprayed from the mouth, may occur, as when a

* Prepared by H. W. Hill.

diphtheritic patient coughs into an attendant's face; or mucous may be applied to skin membranes or *vice versa*, as in the kissing of a smallpox patient; but in general the discharges are conveyed somewhat indirectly. The prime route from mucous membrane to mucous membrane is furnished by the hands. An attendant touches the patient's lips or wipes out the mouth or otherwise performs toilet services and receives the discharges upon his fingers. The fingers go then to the attendant's mouth directly, or touch something (the tines of a fork or the bowl of a spoon, etc.) which in turn goes into his mouth; or the attendant may touch the fork or spoon or food of others and thus they become infected. He may milk a cow and so get the discharges into the milk. With the infection in his own mouth he may kiss others and transfer it to them. It is impossible to outline the infinite combinations that may occur, but the principles are here made obvious. When the infective discharges handled are those of the bladder or bowel (as in typhoid fever, cholera, etc.) the same dangers of transmission are encountered and unfortunately too often realized. The wholesale discharge of sewage into water supplies is merely a gross example of the same principle of transfer of discharges from human bodies to the human mouth.

Another factor in the transmission of disease (as distinguished from the transmission of the germ) is the condition of the infectee. The germ is analogous to a seed; the methods of transmission are somewhat analogous to the distribution of seeds in nature; the condition of the infectee is analogous to the character and nutritional condition of the soil which the seed reaches.

If for any reason the germ will not develop in the soil where it is planted, or, still further, if it grows but fails to produce those poisons through which alone it acts, or finally if, growing and producing its poisons, the soil neutralizes the poisons, no disease results. Science, logic, and the law (each of which regards itself, and rightly so, as merely an apotheosis in its own line of "common sense") unite in the dictum that a disease exists only when the normal functions of the body are in some way interfered with to the detriment of the body. The mere infection of the body with a disease germ does not, in science, logic, or the law, constitute disease. Hence, the reception of a disease germ into the body is but the first of three essentials, the other two being poison-production by the germ and poison-action on the tissues. Many persons are insusceptible to the poisons of one or more disease germs. In whatever

way this insusceptibility originate (natural, acquired by a previous attack, or acquired by artificial treatment) the existence of insusceptibility prevents the acquiring of the disease.

CONTROL OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES PRACTICE.

Undoubtedly, the one wholly efficient method of preventing the spread of infectious diseases would consist in immunizing all the possible infectees against all the possible diseases. Unfortunately, we know of no practical immunizing methods except in the case of a very few diseases, notably smallpox.

Our methods of control of any disease therefore begin with the attempt to destroy them at their origin in the body of the patient, but such methods are merely incidental to the destruction of the germs for the good of the patient himself, i. e. they belong rather to therapeusis than to public health. Unfortunately, also, scarcely any method of destroying bacteria within the body of the patient without destroying the patient also are unknown and therapeusis along this line contents itself largely as yet in so controlling the patent's condition as to permit and encourage to the highest the natural forces of the body in their attacks upon the germs. These natural forces, however, direct their chief energies [illegible]cure their chief results, not in destroying the germ but in neutralizing [illegible]poisons they throw off, and in practice, patients recover rather beca[illegible]ey have neutralized the poisons than because they have killed or ejected the germs. For this reason a recovered patient often remains a breeding ground for the germs which caused the attack, but to whose poisons he is now resistant or immune.

Practically, then, the germs must leave the patient's body before they can be destroyed. It is at this stage that the most efficient control can be exercised, and that control consists in catching and killing them before they become scattered. In practice the efficient disinfection of all the discharges of a patient will prevent the spread of any disease from him. But this is not as easy to do as at first might appear. Ridding the body of its discharges in health is a process dependent on the individual, carried out by him consciously or unconsciously all his life, and by methods chiefly acquired to conserve convenience rather than to prevent their spread. In health, the scattering of these discharges is not of great moment, but of course the habits of miscellaneous careless discharge while well, persist after disease is contracted also. The presence in the

discharges of the infective agent renders the previously harmless discharges the greatest menace that is known to the health of the associates. Hence one primary requisite in the control of the infectious diseases is to establish such habits during health that even the normal discharges are not spread to others. This must be achieved by teaching the individual not to scatter his discharges and by teaching his associates not to receive them, if he does.

Accepting conditions as they are, however, the care of the sick by watchful, well trained nurses who will prevent the spread of the discharges must largely take the place of the earlier training of the patient. Usually this also is impossible. It would seem that at least 95 per cent of the total cases of infectious disease in this country is cared for at home by the home folks, i. e., untrained, worried, exhausted mothers chiefly, learning in the actual face of the enemy, the technic and knowledge acquired quietly and without strain by the trained nurse. Hence, within the home, at present sanitary nursing to prevent spread of disease is a poor and often broken defence.

The third method of control is the destruction of the germs in passage from patient to prospective patient; and this must be largely confined to the actual discharges when accumulated in one place; the finer discharges thrown into the air can hardly be followed.

Under this head may be classed the disinfection of feces and urine, the disinfection of bed clothing, eating utensils, etc., coming into contact with the patient, and especially the disinfection of the hands of attendants. The throats of attendants often contain the germ, especially when diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, etc., are concerned. Unfortunately, the disinfection of the throat is extremely difficult and the scientific nurse will take every precaution to avoid receiving the germ into the mouth, rather than try to dislodge or destroy it after its reception.

As outlined in the preceding section, the principles involved in controlling infectious diseases are very simple, but in practice the individual cannot be trusted to avoid spreading his discharges, partly from ignorance, partly from carelessness, often from mere ingrained bad habits regarding the disposal of discharges, especially those of nose and mouth, indulged unconsciously by those who both know how and mean to be careful.

This would matter little were the infected persons always so sick as to be confined to the house or to bed, especially if during such confinement their discharges were under strict surveillance by scientific trained nurses.

But since many, perhaps half, of the infected persons are not sick enough (if sick at all) even to remain at home; since, also, even severe cases, under surveillance in bed during the height of the attack, have a prodromal stage and a convalescent stage during which they are going about although infective, it is not hard to see that the population of any community is likely to embrace at any time infective persons at large—persons who may or may not be aware of their own condition.

Theoretically and practically, then, the official control of infectious diseases must begin with the blanket assumption that the discharges of every individual must be confined to himself and especially prevented from reaching, through any public utility, the mouths of other citizens. Official control of the exchange of discharges by the individual within the family and in the absence of any specific proof that the discharges are infective, is impossible, although through various agencies the individual may be urged to that end. The moment, however, that the individual or the family engage in any occupation which permits them to inflict their discharges upon others, especially through food, milk, or clothing, that moment should the individual or family come under official cognizance, their methods be inspected and their infectiveness estimated. The same arguments apply to aggregations of individuals from different families. So long as private meetings are held, it is difficult to supervise or prevent exchange of discharges. But public and especially compulsory meeting, at school, at church, at theatre, etc., should receive official attention. Provision should be made concerning all such meetings that they be held only in suitable places, without overcrowding, with good ventilation, and the exclusion by the officers, attendants, or the general public of all known or suspected of infection and of all who more openly disregard ordinary rules of decency in the disposal of discharges (spitting, etc.)

Finally, the strictest supervision of those concerned publicly and officially in the handling of public utilities on a large scale (water supplies, milk supplies, hotels, restaurants, food stores, etc.) should hold all strictly accountable for the contamination of such supplies with discharges whether these be normal or not. Hence official control of infectious disease divides itself naturally as follows:

The recognition and isolation of frank cases of the diseases in question, at home or, better, in a proper hospital.

The supervision of the attendants and immediate associates of such frank cases.

To detect amongst them that one from whom the frank case already recognized received his infection.

To detect at the earliest moment any other frank case about to develop from amongst those associates who may have been infected at the same time and from the same source as the frank case already found.

To prevent further spread from any already infected associates or those who may become infected by later association with the frank case during its existence as such.

The exclusion of the frank cases, their attendants and immediate associates, from participation in public life so long as danger continues and especially to exclude them from having to do with public utilities or public gatherings. Hence has arisen the crude drastic but efficient (when consistent and uniformly carried out in every case) system of *quarantine* of the sick.

Unfortunately quarantine has become a mere letter-of-the-law procedure, working great hardships on those who conscientiously obey and yet failing to achieve its objects because of the great number of those who evade or escape it; moreover, because its provisions are unintelligently enforced. Of what avail is rigid quarantine of an infected family where milk continues to be sold from the same premises? Why quarantine the honest man who has an honest physician and whose case is reported, while his neighbor, having the same disease in his family, calls no physician, or a dishonest one, and therefore escapes official cognizance?

The only remedy seems to be the recognition of the principle that harboring or having in possession a case of infectious disease, unknown to the proper officials, is a crime against society, and that the excuse that the person harboring such case did not know it to be such should be of no more weight than the plea of ignorance of the law which is not allowed in other and often far less serious matters.

The official isolation of infectious cases involves also official responsibilities regarding the release from quarantine after the acute attack is over. Officially to declare a person dangerous to the community does no harm to the community if a mistake is made. An official declaration that a person is no longer dangerous and is therefore free to enter into the community life again may, if mistaken, result in a widespread

outbreak. No more delicate task confronts the public health official than the making of this decision.

In diphtheria, the examination of cultures from the throat and nose of the person in question and the repeated failure to find the bacterium of diphtheria is usually considered a safe criterion. In scarlet fever, complete and continued restoration of the throat and nose to normal conditions, together with absence of ear discharges, should be required, yet is not perfect; for it is wholly likely that the scarlet fever infective agent, whatever it may be, can continue in a recovered scarlet fever throat exactly as the diphtheria bacterium may remain in a recovered diphtheria throat. In other diseases the decision is based on similar lines—the disappearance of crusts in smallpox and chickenpox, of desquamation and discharges in measles, on restoration to normal of whooping cough; but in all these diseases the analogy with diphtheria probably holds to a greater or less extent. In tuberculosis, the patient is infective as long as *Bact. tuberculosis* can be found in the sputum; in typhoid fever the patient is likewise infective as long as the urine or fæces show the typhoid bacillus. In none of these diseases, however, is quarantine or even isolation officially carried out nor release from restriction officially given.

Full sanitary nursing precautions regarding a typhoid fever patient's discharges should continue for an average of three months after recovery.

Two systems of disinfection have been long recognized, *concurrent* and *terminal*. The former concerns the daily, hourly attention to, and disinfection of, everything coming in contact with the patient, especially his discharges and all that they may contaminate. The latter concerns the final disinfection of the patient's room, perhaps of the whole house occupied by him during the attack, after the recovery of the patient.

Much very undue emphasis has been given to terminal disinfection. Large expenditures are made for this purpose and great faith placed in it, unfortunately to the exclusion of attention to, and reliance on, the infinitely more useful and logical concurrent disinfection, which, properly done, ought almost wholly to displace it.

Terminal disinfection should be done following tuberculosis of the lungs, anthrax and plague, in tuberculosis because of the great numbers and wide distribution of the bacteria thrown out by the patient, especially the careless patient, in anthrax because of the existence of resistant spores, possibly attached to furniture, etc.; in plague because of the intense

virulence of the organism and its tendency, like anthrax, to infect directly through the skin. In the ordinary diseases of the temperate zone, however, terminal disinfection cannot for a moment take the place of concurrent disinfection and is unnecessary if the former be properly carried out.

DISINFECTION.

METHODS OF DISINFECTION.

CONCURRENT DISINFECTION.—The disinfection of infected discharges, and of everything coming in contact with the discharges, whether the discharges be of the nose, mouth, bladder, or bowel, and whether the things which come in contact with the discharges be utensils, clothing, hands, furniture, etc., should be done at once, as soon as the discharges appear, or the articles, hands, etc., become contaminated.

Bladder and bowel discharges deposited directly in proper sewer-connected toilet-bowls require no disinfectant treatment; but the seat, door-knobs, toilet paper rack, flush pull and so on, which the discharges may reach, directly or through the patient's hands, should receive disinfection every time the toilet is used by such a patient. Where bed-pans or urinal are used and then emptied into such a toilet-bowl, disinfection should be done of the hands of the attendant who empties the pan, of the whole pan itself, and of any part of seat or bowl (not reached by the flush) contaminated by splash or dribbles from the bed-pan or urinal.

Where out-door toilets or indoor toilets not connected with a sewer are in use the discharges must always be disinfected—preferably by half-filling the bed-pan or urinal, before use, with a saturated solution of milk of lime (unslaked lime, in water, to saturation—cool and pour off the liquid parts) into which the discharges are received. Where such toilets are used by the patient directly, an *abundant* layer of powdered unslaked lime should cover the discharges as soon as they are deposited. Such layer should be an inch deep. Precautions regarding the seats, door-knobs, hands, etc., should be followed as above described.

Soiled bed clothing or other clothing, handkerchiefs, etc., may be rolled up and placed directly in boiling water; but if some interval must elapse before they can be boiled, they should be put directly into 5 per cent carbolic acid solution, or 0.1 of 1 per cent bichloride of mercury solution or other disinfectant of similar killing power for at least half an hour. Thereafter they may be handled as uninfected clothing.

Eating utensils after use should go directly into boiling water for several minutes and then be washed in the ordinary way. Spoons used for medicine, toys, thermometers, etc., which it may be inconvenient or impossible to put into boiling water, should be immersed in 5 per cent carbolic acid or 0.1 per cent bichloride solution for half an hour, then washed.

These solutions may be used also for the hands and a large bowl of one or both of them (carefully labelled, and out of reach of children, etc.) should be constantly ready; into this the patients' and attendants' hands should be dipped after every contamination.

Discharges from the nose and mouth should be collected on paper or rags and burned at once. If inconvenient to burn them, they should be dropped into carbolic or bichloride solutions as above, and disposed of as harmless after a half-hour's soaking.

It is difficult to specify every form of contact to be guarded against by disinfection, but the foregoing are the chief ones to watch for, and the principles given should be widely and intelligently applied—remembering always that the *discharges* contain the *danger*.

TERMINAL DISINFECTION.—Sulphur disinfection (4 lb. burned for every 1000 cubic feet of space, in the presence of steam sufficient to saturate the atmosphere) is effective for disease bacteria—also for roaches, bedbugs, etc., and for mice, rats, etc. But it injures fabrics by bleaching them, and metals by tarnishing them. Formaldehyde vapor is now used in its place for disinfection; but flies, bedbugs, etc., are not successfully exterminated thus. The most recent approved method for use in the disinfection of houses is the Minnesota State Board of Health potassium permanganate formaldehyde method.

For each 1,000 cubic feet of space the following should be used:

Potassium permanganate (crystals)	11 oz.
Solution formaldehyde (U. S. P. 1900)	11 oz.
Water	9 oz.

Directions for use:

Prepare the room to be disinfected by sealing all cracks, windows, ventilators, etc., and all the doors but the one for exit, with wet newspaper strips; open all blankets, drawers, etc; separate and open up all books, clothing, etc., in the room. Have wet strips of paper in readiness to seal the last door when the disinfection has been started and the operator has left the room. The windows should be left unlatched so that when possible they may be opened from the outside when the disinfection is completed.

Use a metal pail with lapped (not soldered) seams, or an earthenware receptacle, holding not less than fourteen 14 quarts, in which to mix the above ingredients. Place the receptacle on bricks standing in a pan of water, but the receptacle should not touch the water.

Place the 11 oz. of potassium permanganate in the receptacle, distributing it evenly over the bottom.

Mix the formaldehyde solution (11 oz.) and the water (9 oz.), and pour this mixture over the potassium permanganate in the receptacle.

This done, the operator should leave the room as quickly as possible, sealing the door behind him with the wet strips of paper prepared in advance for this purpose.

The directions above apply to the disinfection of a room containing 1,000 cubic feet or less. If a room contains more than 1,000 cubic feet of space, use one of the above disinfecting outfits for each 1,000 cubic feet or fraction thereof. Do not attempt to use a double charge in a container of even double capacity.

In disinfecting a whole house, begin with the most distant room and having mixed the potassium permanganate, formaldehyde, and water in the proper receptacle, close the door of the room and seal it at once as directed above. Proceed in this

way in the disinfection of all the rooms. Leave the seals unbroken on the window and doors for six hours, after which the rooms should be opened up and thoroughly aired. The temperature of the room at the time of disinfection should not be below 70° F.

No paper, cotton, cloth, wood, or other combustible material should be in or near the disinfecting outfit for fear of fire, and no flame should be permitted in the room near the disinfecting outfit.

Carriage of Infection by Biological Agents.

The transmission of yellow fever and malaria by mosquitoes, in the course of which the parasite causing the disease must undergo a whole series of biological changes before the mosquito can become infective, is now well understood as an example amongst ultra-microscopic parasites of a host cycle already well understood amongst certain higher and much larger parasites. But the mechanical carriage of infectious material by flies from privy vaults or bed pans or even mucous membranes or open wounds to food and drink or to other mucous membranes or wounds has not been very long established.

That typhoid fever and dysentery have many times occurred in epidemic form chiefly by the carriage of the infective agents by flies the writer firmly believes as the result of personal investigation, as well as from the reports of others. Similar mechanical carriage of infection on the outside of the body has been attributed to rats, dogs, cats, even to cows and horses. This must not be confused with the dissemination of certain diseases by horses actually sick with the disease (glanders) or carrying the germs in their intestines (tetanus), by cows actually sick of tuberculosis, or by other similar instances of disease derived directly from preceding cases in the lower animals.

Another class of cases where lower animals convey disease by biting, and yet act merely mechanically is instanced by the septicæmia sometimes arising from bites of well animals (rats, snakes, mosquitoes, etc.), the teeth acting merely to admit to the tissues pathogenic forms accidentally present in the animal's mouth or on the skin of the bitten person. These must be distinguished from cases where the animal transmits thus a disease from which it is itself suffering (as when a rabid dog spreads rabies by biting other animals or man) and from true poisoning by injection of animal products at the time of biting (as done by poisonous snakes, mosquitoes, etc.).

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